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LEADERSHIP GUIDANCE FOR PUBLIC SECONDARY SCHOOLS

Submitted by

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(B.S.Ed., Boston University, 1935)

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PREFACE

The need for better leaders the world over has become increasingly apparent; the world wars, economic depressions, famines, race and other large-group discrimination, and the weaknesses of governments in facing modern, science-produced conditions being ample proof of this if any is needed. "Societal leaders" are needed to help us to face up to these problems.

This thesis was begun with this conviction; it ends with the same conviction strengthened by recent events. It is a long thesis; it is a difficult problem, or they are difficult problems. In his enthusiasm, the writer has bitten off too many problems. Under the circumstances, it will not be surprising that many are only bitten into.

I wish to acknowledge and indicate my real gratitude to my mother who has been a patient listener, and to my wife who has been both a patient listener, and enduring typist as well. I wish also to remember here the letters and visits I have had with men like Pigors, Partridge, Hollingworth, Tead, Bogardus, Jones, A.J., and the men who were visited in New York City in 1940.

G.Q.H.

July, 14, 1946.

Abstract of a Master's Thesis

LEADERSHIP AND GUIDANCE FOR SECONDARY SCHOOLS: AN ANALYSIS OF PLANNING AND PROMOTIONAL PROBLEMS. WITH A SUMMARY OF RELATED MATERIAL, AND A FRAMED PROGRAM

by

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This thesis maintains that more can be done toward assuring continuance of social progress at the present time by obtaining better "societal leaders" for and within the democracies than by any other line of effort.

It argues that they may be best obtained by instituting in American public secondary schools a program of "leadership guidance." It outlines such a program, and promotes its adoption by arguing that it can be so formed and set up as to be completely compatible with existing democratic educational policies of American public secondary education.

The program proposed is designed to discover "potential leaders" early in their high school careers. Those selected as potential leaders are to be given special attention by the guidance department of the high school throughout their stay. This attention is in the form of special study counsel by a counselor assigned to them, by practice in leadership situations, by a course of leadership education in the 12th grade, by leadership training through projects and school experiences, and special vocational guidance and placement in carefully chosen higher education or in advantageous occupational situations. The study is carefully documented, and includes a bibliographical essay, select list, classified bibliography, and a general bibliography.

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CHAPTER I

THE CENTRAL PROBLEM

Statement and Chief Emphasis

The central problem of this study.-- Herein the basic quest is to determine how potential leaders may be early discovered, counselled, educated, trained, and so placed that society may have the benefit of better leaders in its efforts to progress toward enduring solutions of societal problems.

Main direction.-- Attention is more particularly directed however, especially in the last half of this paper, to considering what the public secondary schools of the United States have done in this field in the past, to inquiring what they are doing at present, and to determining what they might well do in the future to improve upon their present efforts in this direction.

It is contended that high schools are not doing enough or not doing well enough what they are attempting. So an attempt is made to learn what they could well do to recognize, as such, young people who have capacities which make them potentially, at least, future leaders. How could they best devote special effort to helping these individuals develop such leadership talents ? What might they do to place such pupils

in situations on leaving school most advantageous for their further development ?

The ultimate objective is to obtain an abler body of societal leaders. For our democratic society stands at the crossroads of its further development today, vulnerable to the shafts of enemies within and without, and likely to decay unless it works out solutions of the deadly problems that afflict it. It needs efficient and effective societal leaders to do this as it has never needed them before. It must have the services of many young minds able to lead, educated and trained to produce results by successful operation of democratic techniques, and committed to the democratic way of life.

Here we weigh educational processes of the past and the present, and formulate new ones by which secondary education may do a better job in helping to provide such leaders.

Two Definitions

That the problem undertaken may be more clearly understood as stated, two terms used above should be defined at once. They are the terms "societal leaders" and "societal problems."

Definition of "societal leaders."-- This is a concept which can be best defined in terms of what a societal leader does;- his basic functions. He is, then, a leader who influences public opinion and leads people in thought or action

as they struggle with, and seek to solve societal problems. By his influence, exercised through the expression of ideas which persuade men's minds, he develops, clarifies, educates, and tends to unify public opinion. Having helped his group to achieve an initial unanimity and direction, he is usually called upon by the group to formulate, secure, or direct whatever action the group takes. The measure of his success as a societal leader is the extent of group gains made in directions leading towards solutions of the societal problems.

"Societal problems" defined.-- This idea is best elucidated by summarizing briefly what it is meant to comprehend. The word "societal" is used rather than"social" to distinguish a particular group of the problems usually referred to under the latter term. These problems are conceived to be the major afflictions of our total western civilized society. They are the chief causes of conflicting goals of large social groups in their relationships with one another. They constitute the main questions of justice that exist between them. Such large groups are defined by the divergent physical, economic, social, civil, and cultural situations they occupy in relation to one another.

These basic causes of large-group conflicts may be placed under four generalizing headings :

(1) The problem of war and collective physical might;

(2) The problem of economic justice;

(3) The problem of social and cultural discrimination;

(4) The problem of just government.

It is maintained that when leaders and their followers, either in small groups or in large, consistently get nowhere with these problems, disaster inevitably follows. A sufficiently rapid progress towards stable solutions of these problems must be obtained, or they become chief causes of recurring seasons of massive physical violence, with disorganization of society in their train. Such periods set back general human progress because of the destruction of cultural achievements, individuals, and human spiritual values.

These, then, are the "societal problems,"-- the major problems of social relations which exist between very large groups of human beings, Particularly, in this century, they confront and seriously menace Western society.

The Problem's Importance--Analyzed

Aspects of consideration:-- (1) Importance of obtaining better societal leaders; (2) importance of accomplishing this through the public secondary school system; (3) importance of careful planning of the leadership training program.

First consideration must be given to the degree of necessity, which is being, or should be, attached to the general cry that we must obtain better leaders for democracy. How important is it thought to be that we should obtain better leaders ? Is the problem, perhaps, much more serious than

advertised ? Thereafter, discussion of the ways and means of securing better leaders remains. How important is it that we should principally channel such efforts through the public secondary school system ? Why is the problem of how best to do it a difficult one for which it is vitally important that the right answers be found ?

The relative necessity of obtaining better societal leaders,--available kinds of testimony as to the importance of the problem.-- Evidence of four types exists. Two of these are well-defined current trends in the development of our society which are becoming increasingly serious and consequential. The other two consist of reactions to these societal trends in the form of printed material or of educational efforts.

Two significant societal trends.-- First, thoughtful people have recognized a well-defined tendency for the failure of our societal leaders to increase. As these leaders tackle societal problems, they are failing with increasing frequency to realize appreciable gains toward durable solutions. Such failures are the more conspicuous ,and by the same token, but also the more serious, since they have taken place in a world being rapidly revolutionized in many ways as a direct result of the contrasting successes of the physical scientists. Secondly, such thinkers have noted, with well-justified alarm, the rapid increase of our capacity to

accomplish be violent physical means (a notable achievement of the physical scientists) destruction of ourselves and of our civilization. Accordingly, they are the more impressed with the increased gravity of the present situation with respect to the societal problems.

The penalty of allowing this "social lag" in the area of the societal problems to continue to build social pressures up to the explosive level is, at long last, perfectly dramatized to such thinkers by the appalling advent of the atomic bomb. In this, and in many other developments only now in their infancy, scientists and militarists, much too willing servants of long obsolescent sovereign states are preparing a black cloud of consequences too ominous to the future of our society to permit us longer to mishandle societal problems. We no longer can allow them to accumulate from neglect, distaste, or easy acceptance of defeat. We are shocked by the bomb into ultra-acute awareness of an imminent fact, namely,-- that to allow further persistence of the current lag in social progress is tantamount to inviting, in a future all too close, a conflict that may well result in the calamitous destruction of Western civilization.

Two reactions to these trends which emphasize the need of improving leadership.-- With rising inflections, many of today's most responsible and prescient leaders and thinkers beat the tocsins and urge democracy to devote very much more

of its attention than in the past to the development of competent leaders and improvement of leadership. First, there are a rapidly multiplying number of complaints that the supply of good leaders is inadequate to meet the demands; then, there are a plethora of criticisms of leaders and of leadership; finally, there are a great number of demands for better qualified leaders or more application of leadership training effort. Another type of reaction is more useful, taking positive suggestive tacks. It comes from people who are persuaded of the need, and have been "doing something about it." Their achievements appear in two forms;- first, an accelerating growth of literature; and, second, a number of training courses. Both efforts are designed to interest and are proffered to educate people concerning the requirements and techniques of leadership or administration.

Causes for lack of competent leaders, especially in the industrial democracies.-- Examination of the references of the first type mentioned above,-- those in which the writer is primarily concerned calling attention to the situation in respect to the supply of leadership, shows, when analyzed, repetition of several basic theories to explain democracy's lack of competent candidates for leadership situations.

In the first place, there is often distaste among potential candidates, for leadership careers. Persons whose

personalities are most pregnant with possibilities are repelled by the evil reputations of many democratic politicians. They tend to avoid entrance into callings associated with assumption of social authority and of democratic responsibility because of the bad odor of politics. Also, they are well-informed of the large percentage of failures of societal leaders because of the merciless criticism and glare of publicity to which these are usually subjected. Finally, there is apt to be too little reward either in terms of honest pay or of public gratitude even to successful societal leaders. This situation can hardly attract the best products of our schools and colleges brought up in an age when enlightened self-interest is preached as the highest and most dependable motivation. It is, therefore, only to be expected that the best brains and personalities prefer to prepare themselves for other fields. They are naturally attracted to science or engineering by their shining successes, or to business or industry by their more satisfactory rewards.

Lack of competent candidates for social authority is not produced by career preferences alone, however. For opportunities open to young people which are likely to develop leadership personality are much less frequent in a more mature, highly industrialized democracy than in a younger, simpler political economy. In our earlier history, when development of industries was just getting under way,

the pioneering of new agricultural, commercial, industrial, or other kinds of developments was the commonest early training of youths in self-reliance and social responsibility. Even farming, in those days, had a hundred more kinds of experience attached to it than it usually does today, and most of them calculated to produce people who could lead because they had never been obliged to follow, and necessarily had "minds of their own." Many a New England lad, in those days, was a man and a ship captain at the tender age of twenty-five or even younger.

Today, the thorough-going specialization required to master operation of one cog of our complicated industrial order does not produce the broad understandings of life that could be derived from occupational experiences that our ancestors had from many if not most of their occupations. Neither does the specialized education required by most of today's trades, businesses, and technical or professional occupations ordinarily produce individuals having all-around knowledge. Specialists, no matter how expert, are usually not good societal leadership material.

Why industrial democracies must especially bestir themselves to increase their supply of democratic leaders competent to cope successfully with current societal problems.--The importance of strenuous efforts being made at the present time is underscored by four conditions that must be considered together to appreciate their full significance.

Democratic societal leaders today face the necessity of remodelling political democracy to meet the needs of an industrialized society. Leaders of men must be far more intelligent than dominators. Democracy is infinitely more complex and difficult to operate than autocracy. This makes the task of reorganization difficult, if not dangerous, and at best trying both for leaders and for led. But it is much more so when we consider the special conditions which surround this undertaking. For, in the rest of the world, representative government,(in fact, civilization itself in practically all of the older countries) has broken down entirely or has been shaken to its roots or replaced by autocratic or one-party forms of tyranny. Simultaneously, the proportion of citizens in the industrialized democracies who have comparatively recently come from old or new non-democratic nations has never been greater than at present. Neither has the agitation for reversion to forms of government wherein the individual is a subject and social authority is exercised by domination, ever been more virulent and dangerous than today.

It is more virulent and dangerous precisely because we imagine that we have conquered the danger. Our system's moral and emotional guard against incursions of the disease is down. We can immunize ourselves against the virulent, anti-democratic, retrogressive propaganda emanating from the more recently highly industrialized non-democratic nations

only by rousing ourselves. For we suffer from the disease of inertia and satisfied affluence characteristic of nations which live on the benefits accruing from a vigorous past and we are too befuddled and relaxed by a victorious present to be easily roused and alerted to current demands for careful planning and energetic action by a risk-filled, highly threatening future.

If the democracies wish to survive, if they hope to maintain and perpetuate the democratic ideas and ideals that gave them birth, developed, sustained, and finally built them into flourishing republics, they must develop genuinely democratic techniques that are adapted to meet the vastly changed needs of an industrialized order. Such new methods must at the same time be thoroughly consistent with those basic principles and purposes for which past democratic techniques were evolved. We must remember what labor and pain accompanied their conception and development. But we must never forget nor underestimate the importance of the spirit of hope, faith, and confidence that imbued and sustained the men and women who evolved them over a period of a hundred and fifty years, who with their aid constructed the first successful democracy.

If we are to have half the confidence in a shining future which energized our forefathers, we must recognize that great alterations and additions to our present political setup must be made, and by us, if we are to build an industrial

society that is truly democratic. Such changes must demand much voluntary risk-taking, clear-sighted social intelligence, and indefatigable resourcefulness, in short,- much able societal leadership.

Analysis of the importance of obtaining better societal leaders through the public secondary schools.-- It is obvious that there are many ways and means of doing something about the societal problems. There are many possible ways of reacting to the serious societal trends described above. They may consist neither in demanding that better leaders be obtained, nor in setting up a leadership training program designed to supply them. Nevertheless, it would seem that the educational approach to the task of finding answers to these societal problems and altering these trends promises to be one of the more permanent, more fundamental ones.

Certainly, if an educational approach be worthy of consideration, then one of the ways in which education can most improve upon past efforts lies within the area of leadership education. It can make a tremendous contribution to social reform by evolving a better program of preparation for that group of pupils who, potentially at least, are capable of making (and most likely to make), substantial contributions to the solution of societal problems,-- namely, the potential leaders.

If there be any truth in the foregoing, then the question arises.

Why should public education systems, especially the secondary schools, be particularly prompted to improve upon their present efforts to find and prepare potential leaders for future leadership?-- It is highly important that education should tackle the job for several vital reasons. The effect of education on human progress is a basic one. For education enables society to hold on to past gains while at the same time it builds people who can achieve new ones. More and more evidence tending to prove that leaders are at least as much "made" as they are "born" is being collected by competent scientific research. Educators are vastly more able to find potential leadership material with present measuring instruments than in the past. Furthermore, the techniques and processes by which character is formed and purposively moulded are better understood today. Finally, there is a great need, which education alone can meet, to steer a larger percentage of the best brains into preparation for careers in public service fields.

It is a job pre-eminently for public education. When all is said and done, education is paid for by the public. It is as much responsible for meeting public group needs as it is for serving private, individual ones. Furthermore, from the individual's point of view, any child who has leadership capacity certainly has the right to have it developed

by the public school. Here also, in the public schools, and here alone, the job can be done on a full scale. Practically all potential leaders born, excepting only those who go to private schools, may be found, given special attention, and prepared for future usefulness. There is greater need to do it in the public schools, for unlike most of the better private schools, here there has been all too little purposive effort in this direction. Here, also, are greater differences of individual ability. Public schools, therefore, should make more extensive provisions than private ones for different levels and types of ability. It is especially important that this task should be primarily one for public secondary schools, for several very sufficient reasons. Children of secondary school age are at the beginning of the period of their development during which social personality, social attitudes and ideals and vocational career decisions are in process of formation. Colleges, more awake to the necessity of leadership training, are greatly handicapped in their attempts substantially to modify personality and behavior patterns in any important respects. Many students, if not most of them, come to college with social attitudes and ideals pretty well crystallized and with vocational choices made. High schools handle a larger percentage of the country's total yield of potential leaders; for many are forced, or choose to make their own way or seek non-college forms of further education when they leave high

school. Hence, the secondary schools are in a position to find and develop many potential leaders whom colleges have no chance to serve.

Private secondary schools and colleges should not be tacitly permitted to monopolize the field of leadership training, as they have long succeeded fairly well in doing in England. This custom tends to develop an undemocratic, socio-economic stratification of trained leaders into a "ruling class," an aristocracy of a sort, from individuals whose families were sufficiently well off to send them there. If a social aristocracy of leaders trained in the first place in private secondary schools is by no means so well-defined in America, there are, nevertheless, tendencies in that direction which are perfectly apparent. If something effective is not done in the direction of democratic leadership training by the public secondary schools, they may soon be left far behind, if they are not already so, in their contribution to the nation's body of leaders. We cannot permit such a pattern to become established. To prevent it, public educators and the public have a real effective weapon. They can control the content of leadership education by democratic means. They can keep it on the track of producing leaders,- not dictators and not headmen.

Finally, public secondary schools must go deeply into leadership efforts because they are the farthest behind and so have the greatest room for improvement. As in all

American public education, they have leaned over backwards to comply with the democratic ideal of cutting the education program to fit the largest group. Recently, behavior problems and public criticisms have forced them to plan for the problem children, the dull, and to enrich curriculums with special courses and training for the specially gifted. But those who have been gifted with leadership talents and personality have been expected to make their way unaided. Certainly, large numbers of them have found leadership training (than which there is no better) in the experiences of officerships, committeeships, editorships, captaincies, and what not. But it will here be pointed out that leadership experience is but one technique of leadership education. The need for competent democratic leaders is so great that we are obliged to supplement this with other leadership education, with leader discovery and developmental effort of many kinds.

The Problem's Importance--Validated

Unnecessary to validate importance of societal trends.--No doubt it would be possible to show by tabulations of articles and books on these subjects, rapid increases in the amount of attention being devoted to social lag or in the attention and intensity of conviction of writers discussing the greater seriousness today of violent conflicts. It is probably more worth while to validate the relative

importance with which materials relating to the obtaining and training of leaders, and those on leadership are being regarded. Practically every one of these shows its origin in concern over these trends.

Increase of attention in the more popular periodicals and books to leaders and the necessity of obtaining leaders.--To show the public's, writers', and publishers' increasing attention to the problem, there are herewith tabulated (see Tables 1,2, and 3) the numbers of references found in two periodical indexes, 1/ and in the United States Catalogue, which references appeared under the headings, "Leaders", "Leadership", or "Leadership Training." They appear in sequence of approximate year intervals as found in those works. Naturally, the number of publications and periodicals published, as well as the total quantity of printed matter, has vastly increased during these years. It may be further objected that more attention to a subject does not necessarily indicate its greater importance. But this subject cannot, by any stretch of the imagination, be classed as a faddish one. If more space is being devoted to it, it is not unreasonable to conclude that it is being increasingly regarded as an important topic for current consideration by the writers, readers, publishers, and editors of serious periodicals and books.

1/ The Readers' Guide and The Educational Index.

Table 1. Numbers and Averages per Year of References to Articles in Periodicals Appearing in The Readers' Guide, 1/1890 to 1946.

Years by Approx. Decade Intervals	No. of References to Articles on L'drship	No. Refs. to Articles on Leadership Training	Total Number Articles Cols.1,2	Average No. Articles Cols.1,2 Per Year	Letting Average 1890-1899 Equal One
(1)	(2)	(3)	(4)	(5)	(6)
1890-1899	3	1	4	.4	1
1900-1909	8	0	8	.8	2
1910-1918	14	4	18	2.	5
1919-1928	51	19	70	7.	17.5
1929-1939 (to June, 1939)	87	14	101	9.52	23.8
1939 June-1946 March	57	9	66	10.56	26.4

1/ The Readers' Guide, New York: W.W. Wilson Company, for period since 1890.

Table 2. Numbers and Averages per Year of References to Articles in Educational Journals Appearing in The Educational Index 1/ from January, 1929, to June, 1946.

Years by Approx. Three-Yr. Intervals	Same as in Table 1	Same as in Table 1	Same as in Table 1	Same as in Table 1	Av. No. of Articles First 9½ yrs. 2nd 8½ yrs.
(1)	(2)	(3)	(4)	(5)	(6)
Jan.1929 to June, 1932	36	11	47	13.43	
July,1932 to June, 1935	50	11	61	20.33	18.1
July,1935 to June, 1938	47	17	64	21.33	
July,1938 to June, 1941	40	38	78	26.00	
July,1941 to June, 1944	37	39	76	25.33	22.4 2/
July,1944 to Jan. 1946	16	20	36	14.4 3/	

1/ The Educational Index, New York: W.W. Wilson Company, beginning 1929.

2/ Latest leaflets of The Educational Index do not have all references indexed which will appear in the three-year compilation edition.

3/ The Readers' Guide, New York: W.W.Wilson Company, for period since 1890.

Table 3. Numbers of Books, Dissertations, and Pamphlets on Leaders and Leadership Indexed in The American Catalogue, later called The United States Catalogue, 1/ from 1863 through 1945.

Years by Decade Intervals	Number of References Indexed on Leaders or Leadership	Notations
(1)	(2)	(3)
1863 - 1872	1	
1873 - 1882	3	
1883 - 1892	3	
1893 - 1902	2	
1903 - 1912	8	First Leadership references, two books, and an address.
1913 - 1922	21	
1923 - 1932	38	
1933 - 1942	82	
1943 - 1945	34	At a rate which predicts 90 by 1952.

Increasing number of books, articles, conferences, and courses on leadership and administration.-- Besides popular discussions, much is being written and said by those whose purposes are strictly practical. The basic purpose of this effort is to educate people for more efficient and effective leadership or administration. Many actual courses to develop

1/ The United States Catalogue, New York: H.W. Wilson Co. since 1863.

leadership ability and personality are being reported. Their number is increasing. Evidence of the increase of such articles and publications is also presented in Tables 1, 2, and 3. Note especially the increases in the number of references on leadership training as shown in the third columns of tables 1 and 2. Also note that in table 2 the number of such articles is now 25 per cent more for the period July, 1944 to January, 1946 than the articles on leadership, although in the period January, 1929 to June, 1932 articles on the training of leaders were less than a quarter of total listings under these two titles.

Statement of Organization into Chapters

Introductory chapters.-- The chapters in the thesis fall naturally into four major parts. These are based on the purposes served. The first three are introductory. The purpose of Chapter I is strictly to state and explain the importance of the problem, its significance in relation to (1) societal conditions, and (2) public secondary education. Chapter II reviews the three studies which may be considered parallel to this study in subject and approach to the subject. Discussion of studies on major topics of this study is deferred to Appendix A, where a small selection of the studies found most valuable in this study are briefly discussed. Chapter III explains procedure in formulating the problem, organizing it, means of finding data, and principles and style of composition.

Problem analysis.-- In Chapter IV, the total problem is completely broken down into major and minor problems, for the most part stated as questions classified under major problems, seven in number. It is designed for those who wish to see the problem whole, for those who wish to get leads for problems that need research, and for those who wish to see what they must face if they propose to set up such a program or promote one.

The argument and the evidence.-- Chapters V through X are devoted to examining most of the problems classified under Major Problems I through VI of the Problem Analysis. Only the most vital of the questions classified under the Major Problem VII has been dealt with in this study. It is covered in the second recommendation listed in Chapter XI. Space considerations forced us to eliminate the chapter in which we intended to cover Major Problem VII.

Conclusions and recommendations.-- Here we have stated the seven main conclusions reached in the study. The first comes out of Chapter I, the second conclusion from Chapter V and so on through Chapter X. Four recommendations are made, the second and third in some detail.

Appendix.-- We have done a truly exhaustive piece of bibliographical investigation of the material on this thesis subject, since we found that no bibliography existed on leadership and leadership training. Associated with these

two topics, there are a plethora of topics which are closely related and under which students of the subject will find a wealth of material in relation to the various sub-problems. Such related materials, ordinarily not discovered by students of leadership, ought to be made available. As pointed out in Chapter I, and proven, the subjects of leadership and the training of leaders are receiving attention from serious students at a steadily increasing pace. Everything points to a continuation of this trend.

Consequently, the writer has devoted much time to the careful assembling of the most valuable materials in three bibliographies. The first two are specific, the last, general. Appendix A has been described on page 21. Appendix B is the classified bibliography. The general bibliography is also selective, since there have been approximately 2500 references to select from! About a quarter of these have been consulted by the writer, and notes taken, or an evaluation made. To avoid extra work, repeating titles of references in the general bibliography that appear in the more useful, classified bibliography (Appendix B), only the author, and the heading under which classified appear for all references deemed important or specific enough to classify.

Subject index.-- A subject index, with pages on which the references are classified under that subject, follows the general bibliography.

CHAPTER II

RELATED STUDIES

Their Selection

The task.-- From the approximately 2500 references that have been collected in the course of our investigation into the bibliography of the subject and of topics in closely associated fields, it has been less than easy to make a selection of the most valuable materials. This has been due not alone to the quantity of the materials, but to their nature. As Walworth has pointed out, the value of materials varies greatly, from essays ("armchair materials"), 1/ to careful studies. He divided the latter into five types of studies which he described as "subjective, tabulatory, situational, physiological, and analytical."

The present research is concerned with leadership training as well as leadership. Education is a highly discursive subject. Since this particular phase of education is a topic particularly popular with many educators, appearing in many forms and places, the quantity of "armchair material" which must be examined is very great.

Bases of selection.-- Studies have been evaluated by applying a combination of several criteria and standards.

1/ Lawrence Alba Walworth, An Analytical Study of Papers on Leaders and Leadership, Master's Degree Thesis, Oregon State College, Corvallis, Oregon. 1939. Chapter III.

The subjects of leadership and training for it are dealt with by many thinkers having different approaches, methods, and objectives. The problems relating to leadership and leadership training with which we deal or which we have recognized and touched upon in this study are virtually encyclopedic. Hence, we have had to give up any hope of formulating a single, all-purpose classificatory or evaluative method.

In general, three practical, working formulas have been adopted.

The studies dealt with in this chapter are those deemed most "parallel" to this one. To an important degree they (1) attack a large proportion of the problems analyzed or surveyed herein, (2) use the same or a similar method of approaching them, and (3) have the same or closely similar objectives.

References appearing in Appendix A, the bibliographical essay, (1) attack at least one vital thesis problem, (2) have proved of definite value to the writer in this study by clarifying or solving a problem, by offering the opinion of an authority well-qualified to express it, or by summarizing authoritative opinions.

References listed in Appendix B, the classified bibliography, are (1) closely associated with a specific thesis problem or sub-problem, (2) written by qualified students, and (3) are, for the most part, limited to or concentrated on one or more well-defined problems, i.e. not general in approach.

Our alphabetical, full bibliography contains all references deemed of sufficient worth to justify inclusion herein.

Parallel Studies

The closest study.-- Only one study parallels this one at all closely. It is a book by Arthur J. Jones, who is a Professor of Secondary Education at the University of Pennsylvania, primarily designed as a textbook for students of secondary education. The Education of Youth for Leadership, published in New York in 1938 by McGraw-Hill, undertakes much the same problem as ours, in a similar spirit, and with very similar objectives. It appeared while we were deeply engrossed in a study of the various elements of this problem begun three years before.

But the writer's first interest in the problem is definitely attributable to his reading the original statement of it by the same Professor Jones, in the chapter titled "Leadership Guidance" added to the second edition of his book, The Principles of Guidance (McGraw-Hill, 1934). Not included in the first (1930) edition, this chapter has been removed in the third (1945) edition, for the reason that this material appears in the 1938 book.

In a letter answering the writer's inquiry, Jones wrote (April 26, 1946),

> "It is a little difficult for me to give you any clear idea of the development of my interest in leadership training and guidance.
>
> "The initial stimulus for this interest I am sure, came from a careful study I made 20 or 25 years ago of the social structure and educational system of Athens and Rome....Next impetus in this direction came from a study of the English public secondary schools. The methods that they advertise so much for training leaders on their athletic

> fields and in their home system led me to visit quite a number of these schools in 1936....At the same time, I made a very careful study of the youth organizations in Soviet Russia....Ordway Tead's book on The Art of Leadership was very stimulating and helped crystallize my thinking regarding the kind of leadership we need."

As early as April 8, 1932, Professor Jones spoke on Leadership Guidance before an Ohio State Educational Conference. Rural leadership training work centers at Ohio State University. The substance of this address, which cited findings from Dr. Catherine Cox's book, The Early Mental Traits of Three Hundred Geniuses (Stanford University, 1926), was published and was the basis of the (1934) chapter mentioned, which was later expanded, with additional research, to the book.

The Education of Youth for Leadership is made up as follows. Sixty-five per cent critically surveys methods and conditions of ancient and recent education and training for leadership in the schools of Athens, Rome, modern England, Russia, and this country. Fifteen per cent is devoted to principles of leadership, twenty per cent to developing suggestions for a secondary school program. There are 237 pages plus an index, with a few selected references at chapter ends, but no bibliography otherwise.

Like all this author's output, this one is admirably organized. The approach to this important and neglected subject is unique. Its development is able. The book produces a novel and practical plan. It is the work of a searching thinker in a field that will require and now receives

1/ In The Educational Outlook, VI: 227-234 (May, 1932).

increasing attention. Thoughtful study of it is amply repaid. It should, and no doubt will, motivate many a student to develop further its many important lines of thought.

Three other studies are roughly parallel to this one. Dr. Leta S. Hollingworth of Columbia University and Speyer School summed up what she considered from her vast study and experience, was in the realm of the known about the early selection and training of leaders, 1/ in the year (1939) which saw her unfortunately early death. Her "leaders" were mainly gifted children.

Dr. Edward John Liston, in his doctor's thesis 2/ based on his work at West Seattle High School, has developed much the same idea in practice that the writer explores and plans in theory in this study. His method, content, and underlying philosophy of objectives and needs, and his research is closely parallel, and has been immensely useful, suggestive, and encouraging to the writer.

Professor Noel Keys' article 3/ is the best and latest good summary-survey of recent work. More questions are asked than answered, which accurately reflects the situation that exists in this field. This article is another real spur and help.

1/ Leta Stetter Hollingworth, "What we Know about the Early Selection and Training of Leaders." Teachers' College Record, XL (April 1939) 575-592.
2/ Edward John Liston, Personal Achievement Classes for Superior High School Pupils, Ph. D. Thesis, University of Washington, (State) 1939.
3/ Noel Keys, "Finding and Educating our Leaders", Education and Society, (a book of faculty studies) University of California, University of California Press, Berkeley, 1944.

CHAPTER III

PROCEDURE

Form of Thesis

The "Form Book for Thesis Writing".-- In form and style, the writer has been guided by the book by W. G. Campbell. 1/ It is Campbell who states that it is well to have three introductory chapters, thus dividing the statement of problem, related studies, and procedure into three units rather than one,--a necessity in this thesis, because of the length of the discussion of the item, "Importance of the Problem" which the writer feels should not be skimped. Leadership education appears to be one of those subjects which highly attracts certain people and almost repels others who probably have strong emotional attitudes built up which associate it with undemocratic or favoratistic teaching. It is hard to wean such folk from what they imagine are equalitarian principles. They feel you are either the wiley or unwitting advocate of aristocracy. The best approach to them appears to be to show the great need of leaders and to reveal the reasons why democratic educational techniques are not at present producing a satisfactory crop.

Manuscript preparation.-- In preparing the typed manuscript, the writer has been guided by the mineographed set

1/ Campbell, William G., Form Book for Thesis Writing, Houghton-Mifflin, Boston, 1939.

of rules and illustrations by Professor Roy O. Billett, titled Preparing a Typed Manuscript.[1] It has been found very valuable.

Analysis of the Problem

Study.-- From careful study the writer secured and listed a large number of questions from all kinds of printed sources. Articles and books on this or allied topics often include questions raised by various writers directly or implicitly. Besides the questions asked in sources, there are here included many which a thorough analysis reveals as calling for discussion.

Analysis of questions.-- Many of these questions and problems (brought up in discussions and studies of leaders, leadership, or leadership training) are similar and can be classified under the same head. Such classification results in a collection of basic problems. But many of these prove to be subordinate to others when considered from a point of view of use or process.

Arrangement and order.-- For an arrangement in logical order of the classified list of problems, the writer has relied on two criterions. One is the process of leadership development; the other is the use to which the material might be put. The process must begin from the point of view of time with the finding, discovery, or selection of potential leaders, and ends with placing these leaders and following

1/ Billett, Roy O., Preparing a Typed Manuscript, (mim) Boston University, 193_(?), Seminar in Secondary Education.

them up to evaluate the educational program. But no such program exists. Plans for one may never be used unless sufficient justification for it goes along with it. Those who may wish to install such a program need to have three kinds of information. First, they need facts as to the need of the program, facts as to the present situation of education in relation to leadership education, and facts finally as to the relative effectiveness of similar educational programs. These facts or the range of opinions that exist on these questions are covered in Chapters V, VI, and XI, respectively.

Bibliographical Research

Catalogues.-- Our bibliographical research has been exhaustive in this subject: Leadership and Leadership Training. We have also canvassed related fields where subjects were close to, or included materials valuable in respect to a development program for potential leaders in high school. The publishers' and United States catalogues, and all libraries near Boston have been systematically ransacked, books examined or reviews of them read, and a selection of related references selected, classified, and annotated.

Indices.-- Periodical indexes, including the Periodical, Educational, Industrial, and others have been systematically examined and all possible articles and books looked up and notes made on them, for use in this study, or for bibliographical classification and annotation.

Bibliographies.-- Bibliographies of this and related topics have been exhaustively consulted and all promising titles noted and looked up. Bibliographies in authoritative references on, or related to a program and course or the subject of leadership or leadership training have been similarly treated.

Footnotes.-- Footnote references have been also noted and looked up when they appeared promising. Some of the richest materials have been located by their means.

Theses.-- Bibliographies and lists of theses have been carefully and endlessly consulted and many excellent references found. Seven of these have been obtained through interlibrary loans. Other theses indexed in the catalogues of six colleges near Boston have been looked up. Many have been called for and carefully examined, a few read throughout.

Recent materials.-- Periodicals and publishers' lists have been carefully examined and all promising materials read that were possible to obtain, which might throw more light on the subject.

A critical survey.-- In truth, if a related reference does not appear in the bibliography of this study, it is not because it has not been found and examined, but because it was rejected as of little value or of an insufficient degree of relateness to the present study. An exhaustive process of bibliographical survey and critical examination of printed materials on or related to the main topics of this thesis

has been the main procedural background of this study.

Preparation of the Suggested Program

A four-fold process.-- The method by which the suggested program has been developed breaks down into four progressive processes, once the evidence has been accumulated, evaluated, and classified. It consists of (1) presentation of opinions and findings on each sub-problem, (2) summarizing of such opinions and findings, (3) drawing conclusions at chapter ends by inference, and (4) constructing a program consistent with these conclusions.

Presentation.-- The references deemed typical, most important, and most closely related to a given problem are presented in quotation or by summary and discussed with others similarly related and valuable or typical.

Summary.-- At the conclusion of presentation, a summary of opinions or findings on each sub-problem is made at once.

Conclusion.-- At chapter ends, conclusions are drawn from such summaries.

Construction.-- In the final chapter, a tentative suggested program is framed. This is consistent with the conclusions drawn at chapter ends.

Nature of this Study

An analysis.-- This study attempts to present an analysis of the total problem of leadership discovery and training in the secondary school. It seeks to present the problem whole

with all sub-problems in logical arrangement. It includes in the problem the educator's problems in selling such a program to the community. It hopes to develop an arsenal of well-chosen arguments and facts which may prove invaluable to him who seeks to initiate, promote, or develop a program such as that outlined.

A tentative framework for a program.-- The fruit of the writer's efforts may be regarded primarily as the tentative program framed in the final chapter.

Bibliography.-- This is the first bibliography, to the knowledge of the writer, which has attempted to cover the entire field presented. It should be of value for that if for no other reason. It represents four years of research.

General Approach

References.-- Several writers and social scientists have suggested the proper approach to studies of leadership. Few have said anything about leadership training. Jessen, 1/ a senior specialist in secondary education at the United States Office of Education emphasizes the need of research on potential leaders and their training in secondary schools. Bowman 2/ cautions against students' tendencies in leadership studies to "escape from bothersome precision into the idealistic bundle of superlatives that often are used to designate

1/ Carl A. Jessen, Needed Research in Secondary Education, 1937.

2/ Leroy E. Bowman, "An Approach to the Study of Leadership", Journal of Applied Sociology (March,1927) 11: 315-321.

leadership." "It seems safest and wisest," he says, "to approach leadership as a relationship and to study leadership situations rather than leaders." This is the basis of the sociometric approach, developed by Moreno, and fostered in his group's journal, "Sociometry." Westburgh,[1] indeed, had early forecast the necessity of sociometric methods in studying leadership, though Bowman had spoken first, being quickly followed by Thrasher,[2] whose study of boys' gangs began a new era in social psychology. Kurt Lewin [3] is having the last word on the subject, but shares with Helen Hall Jennings[4] the center of interest.

References on approach for this study.-- We have been guided, however, not so much by writers on methods of experimenting in studying leadership, as by the writings of those who have surveyed leadership training, particularly survey and bibliographical studies. Jones in his survey [5] and

1/ Edward M. Westburgh, "A Point of View:Studies in Leadership", Journal of Abnormal and Social Psychology 25: 418-423.

2/ Frederick M. Thrasher, The Gang, University of Chicago Press, Chicago, 1927.

3/ Kurt Lewin, "Research Approach to Leadership Problems", Journal of Educational Sociology (March, 1944) 17:392-398.

4/ Helen Hall Jennings, Leadership and Isolation, 1943 ?

5/ Arthur Julius Jones, The Education of Youth for Leadership. McGraw-Hill Book Company. New York, 1938

Smith and Krueger in their bibliographical essay, as well as Noel Keys in his report 1/ have provided us with our best references and models of approach in this study. It is precisely because our research has failed to discover any adequate bibliography of leadership training that we have made of ours so big a part of the contribution of this study.

1/ Noel Keys, "Finding and Educating Our Leaders", Education and Society, by members of the faculties of the University of California, Berkeley and Los Angeles, University of California Press, 1944. pp. 64-78.

CHAPTER IV

AN ANALYSIS OF THE PROBLEM

Its "Break-down" into Seven Major Problems

The technique used.-- The central thesis problem may be divided to meet the needs of research and argument into seven main problems. Each may be further dissected and the resulting sub-problems arranged in a series of developmental questions. These may be so ordered and conceived that each more or less grows from conclusions compelled by the examination of the question preceding it. An investigation and argument so conducted produces intense illumination of the major problem by the cumulative consideration of its component parts.

Seven major problems.-- These are best stated in terms of their distinct objectives, since an effort is implied in each problem to determine the best means available of reaching certain goals. These objectives, then, can be expressed thus: We seek to learn how best

(1) to assure continuance of human progress;

(2) to obtain better social and societal leaders;

(3) to discover potential leaders in secondary schools;

(4) to counsel these potential leaders;

(5) to educate and train them for effective social leadership;

(6) to give them effective vocational guidance and placement;

(7) to frame an educational method and program designed to discover and thus develop potential leaders which is compatible with existing educational policies in American public secondary schools.

Analysis of the First Major Problem

Statement of the problem.-- The outcome sought in this problem is determination of the most effective means of assuring continuance of human progress at the present time.

Meaning and condition of human progress.-- First, we must define the term "human progress." Next, consider if it requires assurance of continuance. Is it automatic, inevitable? Is it slowing up? Are parts of it lagging? Do such laggings threaten the forward movement of the race? What are the "lags"? Are they describable as the "societal problems"? Is any effort more important than that directed to solving them? Is our failure in this area the main reason why human progress is threatened now?

What are the "societal problems"? What is "social progress"? Why are the "societal problems" the most serious? Why, then, do we fail to make sufficiently rapid headway toward solving them?

Examination of the means of promoting social progress.-- What means are the most practical and available for attacking the problems of social progress? Which have the greatest potentialities and likelihood of offering rapid, enduring gains? We shall have to weigh the present merits, suitability, and

the relative ease of applying the methods contemplated in each. From such examination, one of the means of assuring the continuance of human progress, by helping us to attack the societal problems (i.e. the large-scale social problems that mainly block social progress) may appear to offer greater possibilities than the others. This consists in the development, assuming this can be done by early selection and careful preparation, of potential leaders for societal leadership.

The likelihood of better leaders being effective.-- Would they help society achieve more rapid progress by being of substantial assistance in the attack on the societal problems? That is, if we can somehow supply them, are we reasonably sure that society could use them successfully as major means of overcoming the present, critical problems of societal conflict?

To reach a valid judgment on this, we must consider the nature of leadership. Is there any such thing? What is it? What is the structure of a leadership situation? What are the functions of the leader? How is domination distinguished from leadership? Are leaders necessary to men? Is intelligence essential for progress? Do they produce events or are they merely instruments of social groups or other latent social forces that shape or control the course of human destiny?

Are better societal leaders democracy's greatest need?-- If we are persuaded that leadership exists, is definable, has form and function, is necessary to men, and to social progress because it affects history, we are properly prepared to con-

sider whether better leaders, if obtainable, would be our most promising means of securing continuance of human progress. Perhaps we may improve our insight on this vital question by considering the relative importance attached to leaders and their functioning in this democracy.

Is leadership more particularly required by our democracy for its maintenance and operation than it is needed in countries having other forms of government or other ideologies? Does democratic government require particularly capable leaders more than other types of government? Must a democractically organized society undertake, then, to particularly equip itself with such leaders?

The supply of leaders: quantity and quality.-- Are less potential leaders being born? 1/ Do we need only to prepare for leadership a larger percentage of our potential leaders? Does a true democracy require a greater quantity of leaders than less democratic or non-democratic countries? Does the world need a better quality, or a new type of leader, especially this country? Why?

What type of leader do we need most?-- If we need a different type of leader, what type would prove most desirable and competent to cope with the societal problems?

What are the main kinds of leaders, and what are the bases of classifying them? Is there a "democratic leader" type that is distinguishable from other types? What are "societal lead-

1/ Note that there is implied in this question a basic assumption that leadership aptitude is partly, at least, inborn.

ers." Who, for example, are societal leaders? In what occupations and social situations are societal leaders most commonly found? In which of these positions would prospective societal leaders most frequently find valuable opportunities to serve the needs of social progress?

Other means of attacking social problems for comparisons.--Having developed our argument for the proposition that an excellent means of achieving social progress is through obtaining better societal leaders, it remains to compare with this method other suggested approaches. Thus, we must consider how relatively promising are the various suggestions involving governmental changes, economic reforms, efforts to improve men's morals, and application or discovery of scientific principles and techniques to obtain solutions to social problems.

It especially behooves us to weigh carefully other educational approaches that have been consistently urged. There are the proponents of "more and more education for more and more people," and those who seem to feel that we can overcome all our problems if we can prevent the development of delinquent children into ill-adjusted adults, and those who pin their hopes to vocational guidance, or better citizenship education, or special education of gifted, or "superior" children (generally meaning pupils with higher intelligence quotients), and many other proponents of educational panaceas for world troubles.

Having weighed them all by an evaluative technique based on consideration of their novelty, availability, applicability,

and practicability, we may be convinced that obtaining better societal leaders through the method of education is the best means now available for assuring the continuance of human progress.

Analysis of the Second Major Problem

Statement of the problem.-- What we wish to decide now, is how we may best obtain better societal leaders. Let us consider the main lines of inquiry which investigation must logically pursue if we are to reach an intelligent decision on this question.

Indicated lines in inquiry.-- We will want to know first, what are the possible and available means of obtaining leaders. Having listed and briefly examined these, one method, namely, that of discovering and developing potential leaders within the secondary schools, may appear to have particular merit. First, however, we must be very certain that this is a possible method.

We cannot evaluate and compare it with other methods we have listed until we have established as undeniable this one proposition upon which hangs the validity of its entire claim to be a real method of meeting our problem of obtaining leaders. We must prove beyond shadow of doubt that secondary schools are substantially able to push forward the process of preparing and building leaders-to-be. Do pupils of theirs who develop into adult leaders do so largely from their efforts? In short, have any secondary schools ever succeeded in purposive efforts to develop leadership ability and produced the stuff that makes

well-equipped candidates for leadership? If there are, or ever have been, secondary schools which have been a vital factor in producing those who became leaders, we may reasonably hope they can be so again. As a matter of fact, if they can be shown to have produced leaders, regardless of whether they planned to do so or not, or understood, even, what education and training methods achieved this result, we are on solid ground.

We may now proceed to consider the merits which may be advanced for the proposed use of secondary schools as mediums by means of which we may develop better candidates for societal leadership. Having thoroughly examined and analyzed the values inhering in this medium for obtaining leaders, we may then follow this up by comparing with this method similar analyses of the merits of other methods that are being currently urged as means of obtaining them. So important is the issue, we cannot afford to pursue a method which is second-best.

The question of possibility.-- We begin by studying the history of secondary education with the purpose of determining whether secondary schools anywhere or at any time have planned programs designed to develop leaders and have succeeded in supplying capable leaders to an organization or a country. We shall not overlook the type of leader it was their object to develop, nor the means adopted to select, develop, and place them. Our aim is to prove that there have been schools of the past and that there are schools at present, at the secondary level which have planned to achieve and have in face accom-

plished this object of developing leaders. 1/

However, as was pointed out above, while it is highly desirable to show that these schools planned or plan their programs to develop leaders and have understood what elements contributed to their development, nevertheless, this is not vital. For our present purpose (i.e. proving the "possibility" of obtaining leaders through the secondary school), the only essential thing is proof that, planned and understood or not, the secondary educational process actually was an important contributive factor in developing leadership traits and capacities.

Extent of room for improvement.-- In evaluating the degree of opportunity which utilizing this method of obtaining leaders today affords us, we must consider the extent to which American educators and our society have ignored or taken advantage of the inherent possibilities for developing leadership ability that have always existed in the secondary school. May it be fairly asseverated that, of all our efforts to realize in our secondary schools the aims we commonly express or claim for them, the least effective have been such efforts as we make to achieve this particular objective? On the constructive side, is there any premise or principle fundamental to American public educational philosophy which is diametrically opposed, naturally or logically antagonistic, or milkly but definitely hostile to education for social or other types of leadership

1/ Undoubtedly the best source for information on the history of secondary education's efforts to educate for leadership is contained in Chapters IV to XI of A. J. Jones, op. cit.

in the public secondary schools? This is an important question, one not to be overlooked, slighted, or cursorily examined. Whatever the cause, it can be made convincingly apparent, not only that our efforts to contribute to the supply and improve the quality of the nation's leaders through secondary education have been very ineffective due to their poor conception and organization, but also that the possibilities offered by this means of obtaining leaders are very great and should be more adequately utilized.

Democracy's schools and leadership education.-- Next is the question implied above. The relative appropriateness of our making special efforts to find and develop potential leaders in the public schools of democracy demands attention. It is a question of principle to some, of appropriateness to most people. Is it eminently sound policy or utterly fitting that the public secondary schools of democracy should be utilized to develop democratic leaders? How much is public education responsible for the upholding, for the success of democracy? Do we, should we educate pupils for democracy, for themselves, or for society? Or should we educate children for all three of these purposes? Is education of potential leaders for democratic leadership opposed to any one of these purposes? Under what conditions might this be the case?

What kinds of education most contribute to the maintenance and progress of democracy in the concrete and in the abstract? What authorities, if any, hold that the most impor-

tant service which education can render to society is the development of leaders fit to cope with societal problems? Do the chief supporters of "education for democracy," of "civic education," or so-called "democratic education" commonly make this contention? What, if any, evidence and authoritative opinion exists that recently this country has paid too little attention to the education and training of potential leaders?

Aims and achievements of those secondary schools which have sought to find and educate potential leaders.-- What have been the policies of these schools? To what extent have they succeeded in developing leaders? How much of this achievement was the result of "planning it that way?" What kinds of leaders have American public or private secondary schools planned or sought to develop? To what extent have they produced the types desired? What about types of leaders sought, methods used, and achievements in leadership education in the schools of Europe, England, and the "lands of the Soviets?"

Weighing and comparing others means of obtaining leaders.-- Is it preferable that the schools of democracy leave severely alone any proposals to educate or train for leadership, even give up any activities or planning to obtain leaders by purposive, artificial means, and instead "let Nature take its course," trusting that the chances of fate, the individual abilities of men, and society's requirements and crises will bring the right men forward when needed? 1/ Do we need only to

1/ This is no idle hypothesis, but is substantially the belief of Chauncy M. Depew, as reported in The New York Times (Nov. 14, 1927) p. 10, col. 6.

develop "great societies," or do we need to develop leaders for them, also? 1/ Should we leave all leadership training and education to the colleges? Is good followership education the best answer, on the theory that a good leader must first learn to be a good follower? Should we rely on special education for gifted children as now conceived and operated in the high schools, grade schools, and special schools to provide for potential leaders so far as they are to be specially provided for in the schools? Is an adequate program or functioning of the various applications of civic education as now conceived sufficient to build up the qualities and meet the needs of potential leaders? Is this a problem that can be solved by guidance of the various kinds that have been proposed? Or is it a problem that should be given attention specifically, as the problem of any other group of exceptional children is given, by the development of a well-defined program involving special selection, counseling, education (in a course and projects), training in and out of class, vocational guidance, and placement of potential leaders?

Analysis of the Third Major Problem

Statement of the problem.-- In this problem we seek to determine reliable instruments and techniques of selection, both objective and subjective, which may enable us to discover potential leaders among the pupils of secondary schools. Our objective is the selection of these potential leaders by

1/ Cf. Alfred North Whitehead, Leadership in a Free Society, Harvard University Press, Cambridge. 1935. p. vi.

the scientific preparation of a rank list of pupils of each year-group. On this list pupils are to be ranked in order of leadership potentiality. We may then arbitrarily decide to thenceforth regard a certain percentage of these pupils as potential leaders and thereafter devote special attention to them as a group of pupils having an exceptional characteristic by virtue of their being high in the composite average scores and ratings of those traits, abilities, and achievements or experiences, which make up leadership ability and aptitude,--potential leadership talents.

In this connection, we are obliged to consider several questions. Is it true that potentially, all individuals are leaders? If this is true to a degree, we must immediately inquire if all persons have an equal degree of leadership aptitude and capacity. If people differ in leadership potentiality, then an approach to the problem of selecting those of highest degree of potentiality for leadership begins to emerge. If we can scientifically measure and/or gauge the abilities and aptitudes which constitute potential leadership ability, we can select potential leaders.

Before we can satisfactorily estimate, rate or measure a thing, we must first know what it is. Otherwise, our measurement will mean nothing to us when made, since we cannot know the significance of obtained results, if there is any. Hence, we must define and analyze leadership, breaking it down if possible into its factors or elements. We need to agree on

what we are doing. So we must define terms like "potential leaders", "recognition", "discovery", and "selection." We must decide whether we will regard leaders, gifted children, geniuses, and superior pupils as one and the same. What do we mean by such terms as "social leaders", "potential social leaders", "domination", "dominators," "ascendance", and "societal leaders"?

What attempts to find potential leaders early in life have been made? Can we predict leadership ability from knowledge of parentage? Is it something that may be predicted from knowledge of home environment and upbringing? Is high intelligence prognostic of leadership ability? Is it a requisite for leadership? Is high scholastic aptitude indicative of leadership ability? Are leaders those of strong extraversive tendency? Are leaders always unusually ascendant? What, in short, shall we decide are the fundamental traits, abilities, and characteristic achievement patterns of potential leaders?

Do all potential leaders, a large part, or only a small percentage of them manage to become recognized as such, or as leaders? How large a proportion of potential leaders are trained for leadership? How many are utilized as leaders by society? Is there considerable non-recognition, non-development, and non-utilization by society of the total fund of potential leadership talent?

To what extent have past and present processes of leader selection been unwitting orautomatic; to what extent by a

conscious process? Is selection of leaders likely to become a simpler process or an increasingly complicated one as the time passes? Why?

What are the available approaches to the problem of discovering and selecting potential leaders in secondary schools? Could an infallible method be developed? Is that essential before we are warranted in going ahead? What methods, and what measuring, rating, or inventory instruments for the discovery of potential leaders appear to have the greatest possibilities in respect to reliability, validity, and usefulness?

In connection with educational policy, there are several questions relating to selection. Should school authorities and personnel accept and undertake responsibility of selecting potential leaders? Should they educate and train pupils in methods and standards of choosing leaders? Is it possible that present methods of selecting leaders in democracy are being outgrown and will be superseded by such methods as proportional representation? Would we expose ourselves as educators to justifiable criticism that we attempt to control the future indirectly by pre-casting the tastes and standards of personal and political choice or that we control or temper with free school elections of leaders by influencing the voting by pupils? Who should finally select potential leaders?

Analysis of the Fourth Major Problem

Statement of the problem.-- We must now pursue the problem of how we may best counsel potential leaders and give them

practice in leading. What are the values offered by the techniques of counseling, coaching, practice, and experience in social participation, in respect to leadership ability development? How may we improve on such techniques?

Are leaders "born" or "made", or both, or neither? Do pupils who are consistently chosen as leaders by their classmates become adult leaders, leaders in college? Do children chosen as leaders in elementary and junior high schools become leaders in senior high school?

Can practice of lead ership skills, or purposive participation in activities or enterprises, influence individual differences? Can we, in other words, re-direct the growth and reshape the pattern of character, personality, and ability of the adolescent pupil by guidin him into experiences and practices we consider desirable for him? What educational programs of the past or present have been specifically designed to utilize counselors in training potential or actual leaders by guidance procedures, i.e. by coaching, counseling, and guiding their experience in leadership situations? Have there been any efforts to foster development of leadership talent by motivation techniques such as awards, encouragement, or public recognition?

What do we mean by the term "guidance" as we use it in this connection? What is "leadership guidance"? How may we achieve a thorough improvement of the high school guidance techniques by organizing them for the better counseling of potential leaders.

Analysis of the Fifth Major Problem

Statement of the problem.-- Here we wish to consider how we may best educate and train potential leaders for effective societal leadership. What is an optimum framework for a formal course designed to develop knowledges, abilities, skills, self-knowledge, and self-organization of pupils in relation to leadership? Such a course should carry on the work of the counselors of potential leaders by further promoting the development of good leadership traits and abilities through experience in leading, undertaking school and outside projects, and class practice.

What is meant by "leadership education?" What courses in leadership or closely kindred subjects have been offered in high schools? Have any been offered for leaders or selected potential leaders, or superior pupils who were selected on bases other than tests of school achievement, scholastic aptitude, and abstract intelligence? Are there any existing courses in high school or college specifically designed to educate and train a group of potential leaders in leadership principles and practices, leadership psychology, leadership personality, techniques of thinking and studying, and the social problems and solutions that are being suggested for them?

Can formal education improve leadership ability by instruction in the techniques, problems, and requirements of good leadership? Can personality and character be modified by instruction, by training? Has such leadership training in fact

helped to develop leaders of adult life or predisposed them to leadership careers? Is training by experience or social interaction the only effective approach to developing leaders?

Are the present types of education and training given in high schools sufficient to accomplish all the mind training necessary for the educational needs of potential leaders at this level? Are we justified or wise ever to bring together, as a homogeneous group, pupils whom we have carefully selected as potential leaders? Shall we inform them they have been selected on this basis or somehow keep or disguise this fact from them? Should the schools shoulder responsibilities beyond those accepted at present to develop and prepare potential leaders for leadership? Should we, in the units of personality education, try to develop ability to be liked, to be popular, so that potential leaders may be nominated and elected as leaders in school or in adult life?

What should be the make-up of a course for eleventh or twelfth grade pupils designed to educate a selected group of potential leaders for better societal leadership?

Analysis of the Sixth Major Problem

Statement of the problem.-- Our effort here is to determine what are the best techniques by which we may assist potential leaders to choose vocations, occupations, or higher education wisely, and may help them to secure desirable placements having good opportunities, courses, or avenues for development and progress toward leadership situations compatible with their

abilities.

Is it desirable to include in the course for potential leaders, special vocational guidance units designed to meet the needs of potential leaders? What are the problems peculiar to potential leaders, in respect to choice of a career or a college? What kinds of vocational information should we place in the hands of potential leaders? Should we emphasize the traits and qualifications, problems, and work of the leaders in these vocations? How can we train pupils in techniques of straight thinking as they make vocational choice decisions and plans for further education or careers?

Should the course teacher cooperate in placement work or should this assistance all come from the guidance office? Who should be charged with follow-up studies on potential leaders?

Analysis of the Seventh Major Problem

Statement of the problem.-- We wish in this final major problem to consider how we may best construct a program which will harmonize with the objectives and policies of American public secondary education that are commonly expressed, agreed upon, and followed. If we are to meet the objections of educational leaders and authorities who are in a position to block our efforts, we must know their objections and be able to meet them by modifications of our program or by counter arguments. What are these objections likely to be? What modifications of our program may be introduced to meet such objections without destroying the program?

Probably the most serious objection to the program would be based on conceptions of democratic educational policy. Will this program be likely to strengthen effectively political, economic or social democracy by helping us, through better leaders, to solve the societal problems? Might it be of no value, or have an adverse effect? Might it develop future dictators, or social-revolutionary leaders who would utilize their training to destroy democratic doctrine, government, and way of life? Might it develop some potential leaders into a selfish, power-monopolizing, exclusive, dominating ruling-class aristocracy? Might it produce demogogues, democratic leader-racketeers?

Other criticisms formulate other questions. Are the tasks suggested for the guidance department too important, too heavy, or inappropriate? Is this program expedient at present, a good move in educational politics? Is it relatively desirable, advisable, feasible? Are present methods good enough? Can the schools set up such a program now? Will the results it is likely to produce be worth the expense of supporting it and the effort involved justified in making the changes required?

The Use of the Problem Analysis

Its origin.-- Our analysis of the problems involved in justifying and putting together a program designed to find, educate, and guide potential leaders of the secondary school originated in the writer's efforts to organize his research.

The questions were formed from long lists of basic problems encountered in reading researches connected with this thesis. They were listed and classified during our extensive investigations.

Its use.-- These problems must, we believe, be dealt with by any person interested in the total problem, in developing a program of his own, or in evaluating an existing program.

Inclusion of these problems in this paper.-- While most of these problems are herein considered, though not always in the same order as found in this analysis, the writer does not pretend to cover in this study every problem or topic included here. In the small compass of a paper of this kind, this, obviously is impossible. Several questions, however, not mentioned in this analysis have been dealt with in this study.

CHAPTER V

PROGRESS THROUGH LEADERSHIP

Introductory

Object of the discussion.-- In this chapter we propose to make out a solid case for the assertion that the continuance of human progress can be best assured and fostered now by obtaining more and better leaders, particularly societal leaders. For the present we must pre-assume, then, that we are able to obtain them. The following chapter examines that question broadly, concluding that more can be accomplished in this direction by a special effort in secondary education than by any other method of which advantage can now be readily taken. It also undertakes to prove that leadership ability does substantially improve through educational effort applied specifically for that purpose, and to persuade the reader that such an effort ought to be made. The remainder of this study explores in detail just how secondary education may importantly help to provide society with better societal leaders.

Procedure of the argument.-- In this chapter we argue thus: (1) Human progress is a real thing; progress of a civilization is not inevitable; it demands conscious, purposive, rational effort to be maintained. (2) Too slow progress toward durable solutions of the social problems, particularly four

basic problems of large-group relationships (the societal problems) is now holding back the total front of progress of Western civilization. (3) It appears, from an evaluation of the most promising means of overcoming this "social lag", that an effort to obtain more and better leaders, if it can succeed, may at present prove most rewarding and hence deserves careful examination. (4) Close examination indicates that leadership exists, has form and function, and is definable. (5) Leaders are essential for the social living of mankind; capable social leaders are vital for success in achieving social change for the better. (6) There is a present undersupply of such leaders the world over, but particularly in democratic countries. We conclude that present conditions demand a substantial increase in the quantity of the type of leaders here called "societal leaders", and considerable improvement in the quality of leadership they exert.

Reasons for including "progress through leadership" in this study.-- Very many courses are being put forward today for the high school curriculum, the author of each urging the vital necessity of his course. It is our purpose here thoroughly to consider why progress demands leaders, more leaders, better leaders, societal leaders. We believe all relevant evidence points to an increasing need for well-trained leaders of a kind who can effectively attack societal problems. We are convinced that under the conditions

of modern life, further progress of our civilization depends on such leaders. Here, we "show cause."

Progress

Reality of progress.-- Before Darwin, the idea of progress existed as an unproven hypothesis rather than a scientifically developed theory. Darwin's researches produced a theory of progressive development of all species including Man by a biological process of natural selection through survival and propagation of the fittest of varying individuals and biological groups to meet the conditions of a given environment. Herbert Spencer worked out an application of this biological theory to growth and development of civilized man, reasoning that "evil" behavior was evidence of incomplete adaptation to social living, a "state of existence necessitated...By the increase of population." He regarded non-adapted behavior as a carry-over from "an antecedent state....The respects in which he /Man/ is not fitted for society are the respects in which he is fitted for his original, predatory life." 1/

Lester Frank Ward denied that biological progress, which he called "accidental" progress, applied to development of civilized living, showing that civilized progress was achieved purposively by men who, by cultural invention, adapt environment to themselves, not themselves to environment, ('social telesis'). William Fielding Ogburn considers evidences of

1/ Herbert Spencer, Social Statics, D. Appleton and Company. New York, 1884. p. 77.

change for the better by our society too questionable to justify using the word "progress" and calls the sequence of social events "social change." Spengler, the historian, argues that civilizations grow and decline. Western civilization has been for some time, he maintains, in a state of decline.

It appears to us that "progress" can be a valid and useful concept to describe what takes place when men achieve material and social changes which improve their civilization. It is not so adequate if used to describe biological evolution, since it assumes a standard and contains ethical values. It is equally clear that if civilizations can grow and improve, they can also decline and deteriorate. If men can succeed in building civilizations (progress), the failures of men must be the causes of collapse of civilizations (decline).

Kinds of progress.-- The above makes clear that progress may be biological (or natural) and artificial 1/ (or civilizational). Two kinds of artificial progress have been distinguished: Cultural progress includes improvement in our control of material environment and in the systems of ideas we have constructed; social progress includes development of improved social organizations and habits of behavior (morals).

Non-inevitability of the continued progress of civilization.-- Not until after Darwin's work had been published had anyone dared to view the march of man's progress toward perfect adaptation as a certainty. It was Herbert Spencer, in-

1/ Lester Frank Ward's viewpoint as summed up by Joyce O. Hertzler in Social Progress, Century Co., N.Y., 1928. p. 62.

terpreting and improvising from Darwin, who developed a theory that the progress of mankind was necessary and inevitable. Spencer put it this way: 1/

> All evil results from non-adaptation of a constitution to conditions.....Evil perpetually tends to disappear...By the term 'civilization' we signify the adaptation that has already taken place. The changes that constitute progress are the successive steps of the transition...non-adaptation of an organism to its conditions is ever being rectified; and modification of one or both continues until the adaptation is complete.

People interpreted this to mean that Man was destined steadily to maintain his progress in any case, whatever he did or did not do. For them, Spencer had an answer derived from Bentham and "laissez-faire," 2/

> Any arrangements which in a considerable degree prevent superiority from profiting from the rewards of superiority, or shield inferiority from the evils it entails--any arrangements which tend to make it as well to be inferior as to be superior are arrangements diametrically opposed to the progress of organization and the reaching of the higher life.

Ward made the first effective attack against the theory of the inevitability of progress. He said, as Hertzler sums him up, 3/

> Nearly all progress, material and social, hitherto attained, has come about due to the control of mind over the conditions of life. Progress is and must be a conscious and deliberate act on the part of men....society can convert the natural process of evolution into an artificial process; it can shape its own destiny of its own

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1/ Herbert Spencer, Social Statics, p. 73f.

2/ Hertzler, op. cit., p. 62.

3/ Id, loc. cit.

> volition and will, speeding up the process, and making it far more economical of energy and materials than any process of natural selection or survival of the fittest....This purposeful social action Ward calls 'telesis', the conscious improvement of society by society, i.e. social action based upon intelligent foresight, knowledge of natural and social laws,....action directed....to ends which reason has approved--/i.e./ ....to the attainment of rational social ends.

We must conclude that artificial progress, (or civilizational progress) is not inevitable, because it depends on men's conscious will to apply reasoning in order to attain it. By reasoning, by the use of symbols, by culture transmission (education) and by voluntary, collective, purposeful actions Man adapts environment to suit himself. He does not build civilizations in order to adapt himself to suit environment by natural, evolutional processes. Rather, he builds them in order to resist the effects of natural environmental influences upon him.

Requirements for maintenance of civilized progress.--Spencer, as we have seen, counsels us to avoid any checks upon superiority or any shielding of inferiority. If we do not avoid such "arrangements", we shall be opposing "the progress of organization and the reaching of the higher life." But this sort of negative, laissez-faire-ish counsel is not enough for Ward and the ambitions of Twentieth century thinkers. Ward says we can and must apply "social telesis" to our problems to achieve progress: "Progress is, and must be a conscious and deliberate act on the part of men." 1/

1/ Hertzler, summing up Ward's point of view, op. cit. p. 62.

With this fiat Briffault emphatically agrees, and educates us further: 1/

> The development of humanity has taken place.... amid the conditioning environment....But geography and economics are the conditions, not the means of development. No [such] conditions can bring about evolutionary development in the absence of progressive powers of adaptation....It is by means of a power within himself that [Man] has been enabled to employ the sources of power afforded by the conditions of his environment.... Progress in organic evolution consists in increased power to cope with the environment by means of greater efficiency in the organs of sensation and of action. Prolonged infancy gives rise not only to an intelligent brain, but also to a persistent sense of dependence upon the assistance and goodwill of other individuals. It results not only in intelligence, but in social dispositions.....Man's bodily form is to all intents and purposes withdrawn from the action of those causes which have brought about the transformations of organic forms. And the reason is that, as a consequence of the specific conditions of human society, the operation of those causes has become transferred from the individual to the social organization. The products of human evolution are not the physiological organs, but ideas, habits, opinions, devices, social institutions, organizations, traditions....It is upon these....that the natural selection exercises its eliminative action....Not the loins of man, but the cultural tradition of humanity is the bearer of human evolutionary characters....Progress depends upon truth, and truth depends on intellectual honesty....If moral ideals, if social justice, if humanitarian sentiments have shown a continuous tendency to improve, it is because their development has been conditioned by the action of rational thought.

Hertzler provides us with a definition of progress so satisfactory for our purposes that we adopt it. Progress, to him, is the end-result of applying social telesis (Briffault's

1/ Robert S. Briffault, Rational Evolution, The Macmillan Co. New York, 1930, pp. 10, 12, 13, 18f.

"rational evolution".) But it is primarily an achievement of a free, autonomous society; change cannot be regarded as for the better unless it is change by all, for all. He says, "Progress thus is the realization of the conscious, rational ends of a self-directing society." 1/

We conclude that (1) Progress and decline are both realities. (Both civilizations and species have had long periods of gain and decline; and not a few, be it noted, have been known to have meteoric rises or catastrophic falls.) (2) The progress concept is more valid when applied to civilizational improvement than when applied to the slow biological development of Man. (3) We are primarily dealing herein with social progress, a type of civilizational progress that may be distinguished from cultural progress in that it includes improvement in social organization and social behavior (group moral patterns) rather than in gadgets or ideas. (4) Such progress is not inevitable since it is a product of conscious, rational human willing (or power of social telesis) which is inconsistent and can weaken and become stupid just as it can become strong and intelligent. (5) What is required, therefore, to maintain progress is that we keep this capacity peculiar to human beings strong and biologically intelligent. If it is sound biologically, it is probable that it will be ethically sound as well.

1/ Hertzler, op. cit., p. 89.

"Social Lag"

Unsteadiness and unevenness of human and civilized progress.-- That human progress in general in inconstant in its rate is perfectly apparent from a study of history. There have been leaps ahead such as during the Renaissance and after the invention of the steam engine, and there have been general lags, such as after the Fall of the Roman Empire and continuing up to the Renaissance. It has also been uneven. Cultural progress shot ahead in Greece around 300 B.C., during the late Roman Empire, during the Renaissance, and made rapid gains for two hundred years after the invention of the printing press and again during the 19th and 20th centuries. It lagged at the Fall of Greece, after the burning of the library at Alexandria, and during the interim between the Roman and Western civilizations.

Social progress likewise has often spurted and now and again slowed down. It spurted ahead around 400 to 300 B.C., during the late Roman Republic, at the birth of the United States and the French Republic, and during the period from 1890 to 1920. It lagged during the middle ages, again in the 17th century; it lags conspicuously today behind the meteoric gains of cultural progress since 1920.

Main causes at present for "Social Lag."-- The basic reason for present social lag is the rapid increase in the seriousness of our failure to make sufficiently rapid pro-

gress toward durable solutions of the problems of large group relationships, (the societal problems). The result of our allowing them to drift is that gradually they turn from maladjustments into major conflicts of increasing size and destructive violence.

Origins and growth of the societal problems.-- Men used scientific methods of thinking (inductive, deductive, experimental, testing, and application techniques) when they became dissatisfied with the results of the old logical reasoning methods of Aristotle as a means of establishing indisputable truth. That their new techniques of thinking were applied primarily to obtaining control of physical rather than of social environment had many important effects.

At first, there resulted chiefly cultural changes in environment. Social effects of the new techniques were mainly indirect, secondary effects of these changes. There was gradual acceleration in the rate of amassment of facts and principles. The totality of knowledge enormously increased. The basic principles established were chiefly applied to environmental control and to the production and accumulation of goods.

Later, as attempts were made to apply scientific methods of thinking to social problems, (i.e. problems of social organization and human behavior) difficulties soon arose. It was found hard to establish social hypotheses as laws or even as dependable theories. Social experimentation was more

difficult; it demanded modifications of techniques. Furthermore, experimentation and investigation in social fields was strongly resisted. Finally, it was theorized that it was virtually impossible to modify individual behavioral patterns which were regarded as largely innate and fixed in each species, while the stubborn persistance of social behavioral patterns was linked up with this unchangeability of "human nature". Scientists mostly turned toward more hopeful fields. Social progress gradually slowed up as compared to cultural progress.

Nevertheless, a few social scientists quietly and stubbornly persisted at their tasks, collecting facts, and establishing many tentative social hypotheses and a very few social principles. Also, as the direct result of improved communication and transportation, the size and complexity of social organizations greatly increased. At the same time, basic social problems gradually piled up unsolved. They mounted until social conflicts periodically resulted. Such conflicts were increasingly frequent and serious. Accordingly, the problems which gave rise to them were of heightened importance.

Larger social organizations meant larger conflicts when social problems of their relationships went unsolved. Power to destroy had increased quite as rapidly as power to produce; so destruction of property and of public morale proceeded apace. Populations also increased and density and concentrations of population meant greater loss of life, as well as

of property. Increasingly complex division of labor and of general economic organization was in many ways more easily disorganized by violence, increasing the effects of conflicts on populations.

Finally, the carry-over of dissatisfactions with the results of conflicts increased until emotional imbalance made wars and other social conflicts increasingly easy to provoke. An enormous amount of cynicism and social apathy developed. Pessimism and discouragement seized cultural and social leaders alike. The leaders differed violently and widely, leaving their followers confused and unsettled, and the mass of the people at loose ends, easily led in any direction by the propaganda of incompetent or self-seeking leaders or dominators. Social leadership became infinitely harder and less satisfying and so, increasingly unpopular. Adequately trained societal leadership became the need of the day.

Causes of failure to meet the societal problems.-- We are failing to make sufficiently rapid headway with the societal problems for many reasons. All of them are apparent in the above analysis of the growth in the importance of the societal problems. To list these reasons briefly, there developed

(1) Difficulties in applying scientific thinking;

(2) Resistance to social experiment and investigation;

(3) A piling up of problems unsolved though fought over;

(4) Pessimism and discouragement;

(5) Mental laziness and panacea creation by intellectuals;

(6) Tendencies to rationalize and ignore problems while continuing stupid behavior patterns.

(7) Conceptions of the non-modifiability of human behavior.

Real nature and origin of social progress, means and ends.-- In concentrating upon the best means of overcoming the lag in social progress, it is essential that we do not lose sight of, but rather have clearly in mind our exact purpose in so doing. We wish to assure continuance of social progress. This calls for a clear idea of the essential nature of such progress. We have previously pointed out what it includes, namely, change for the better of social organizations and of human social behavior patterns. But why do we seek to improve them?

Light on this subject is offered by Hertzler. He quotes Guizot as follows, in regard to evidences of progress, "Wherever the intellectual nature of man distinguishes itself by its energy, brilliancy, and its grandeur, and wherever the external condition of man becomes enlarged, quickened, and improved, there is progress." 1/

Commenting on this, Hertzler says that although "the inevitable conclusion [of recent writers] is substantially

1/ The quotation is from F. P. G. Guizot, History of Civilization, Bell. London, 1890. Volume 1, p. 32.

the same....certain valuable additions have been made. Only a distinction must be made between end and means among these two elements." 1/ He amplifies this by saying: 2/

> ....more institutions, or better institutions, or more socialized groups, or any other forms of social machinery or environmental conditions cannot be ends, but merely efficient means to the real end....this real and final end is the production of human beings, personalities, souls.... that society is essential to man does not make society greater than he, for society grows out of the individual, his needs and attributes. Its importance....is only his importance under another name. Human beings are the highest thing in the world; they are the originators and bases of all achievement and progress. They are the ends; all else is means to these ends; all other progress flows from them....Any social state consistent with progress is merely the outward manifestation of a fine and genuine individualism. Progress is mainly concerned with fulfillment of self, the maximum realization of individual potentialities in a socially acceptable way, the harmonious exercise of human faculties and powers.

It is with this ultimate end,--the "production of human beings", in mind that we develop our definitions of "social progress" and of "societal progress."

"Social progress", as we employ the term, has a more restricted meaning than is implied in such a definition as that of Professor L. T. Hobhouse, for example, (as summed up by Hertzler) "....growth in the harmonious adjustment of man to society, of different types of social organization to each other, and of society as a whole to its environment." 3/

1/ Hertzler, op. cit., p. 89f.

2/ Id, loc. cit.

3/ Hertzler, op. cit., p. 8.

Hobhouse is quoted thus: "Social Progress must be regarded as development of the principle of union, order, cooperation, harmony among human beings." 1/

We have in mind when we speak of social progress, the gains toward their objectives of social groups which have consciously planned to increase the ability and opportunity of individuals within social groups, (or of social groups within larger groups), to live more fully by virtue of more socialized behavior and better social organization. The test of improvement and the purpose of improving social organization is the achievement of more socialized behavior. The critical test of whether this kind of gain has been made is evidence of a general decrease in the tendency or necessity exhibited by individuals or groups to secure maximum self or group-realization by means of curtailing opportunities for self or group-realization of other individuals or groups. Is the gain a step forward in the direction of the ultimate end of the social process,-- development of a world society wherein every individual and group of individuals is socially adapted, socially disposed, and socially capable in respect to every other individual or group?

Social progress, then, is two things: (1) advance made by social groups in improving themselves as mediums for the maximum development and fulfillment possible within his potentialities of every member individual without curtailment

1/ Id, loc. cit.

of the same opportunities of others; (2) gain made toward socializing behavior of grouped individuals and social groups to the end that each cooperates for all as well as all for each.

The term "societal[1/] progress" as herein used is nothing more nor less than social progress conceived on the largest human scale; it is social progress achieved by our total civilization. It is the product of Ward's "social telesis" as we interpret it, the consciously and rationally aimed process whereby society is developed by men into a social medium in which the individual has maximum opportunity for development and self-fulfillment. The product of this process is the emerging development of the best possible society for this end. Societal progress, then, is advance by a society toward organization of itself into a structure so arranged and so formed that every individual has maximum opportunity for development and fulfillment of his peculiar potentialities insofar as the social environment may, safely to itself and to its component individuals, provide such opportunity.

Possible Means for Overcoming "Social Lag"

Statement of the most promising means.-- Probably the most promising avenues of effort that are being followed (or being advocated as best means of attacking the societal problems) to eliminate social lag are found in the following

1/ For the use of the word "societal", see John J. Mahoney's book, For Us the Living, Harper. New York, 1945. pp. 68f.

fields: schemes involving (1) governmental changes, (2) economic reforms, (3) improvement of men's morals, (4) application or discovery of scientific principles regarding life, reproduction, social control, and social organization, and (5) various educational reforms.

Political means are the most popular. They include (simply) legislational programs, new parties and new platforms, new government personnel to bring in various reforms. Other means advocated are: political or social or economic revolutions which bring into control men of a different social or economic class, or a different economic occupation, experience, or knowledge, or different training.

Economic reforms such as free trade, single tax, pensions, unemployment insurance, six-hour day, free competition, state socialism, cooperatives, and similar suggestions are urged.

Raising the general level of public morals by religious and philosophical education, by organized religion is advocated as the only sure way by many religionists, philosophers, educators, and even statesmen. Character education is a specially favorite means for many. Others set their hopes on the introduction and propagation of new faiths, or socio-moral philosophies.

Those who regard education as the most promising means do not thereby agree on what education can best do. Some regard more and more education for more and more people as the basic and single important approach. Others want for the

masses less academic or "liberal" education and more practical education in living and gaining a living. Another group place most hope in a new educational attitude, approach, method, or content of education. Such is Dewey's ideal of the "child-centered school" and "progressive education." Many think an improved, re-vivified, re-directed higher education is the best answer. A growing number of educational thinkers believe in the great possibilities of guidance,--programs which would set up educational, psychological, social, and vocational guidance as a major and unifying function of public education. Finally, a few thinkers want the schools to give more purposeful and effective attention to gifted children and/or potential leaders.

Evaluation of these means.-- Our sole criterion for evaluation of these means must be the probable effectiveness of each in overcoming "social lag" by moving society toward durable solutions of the societal problems which are regarded as the major causes for general social lag. We must be mindful of the relative availability, suitability, novelty, and practicability of each.

1. Some thinkers believe that if you can only "make democracy work", "preserve" it, or "defend" it, all will be well. But democracy works only if its people and leaders know how to work it, only if leaders adopt or work out wise reforms and people understand and obey them. No reforms will be better than their authors; none can be realized with-

out wise administration. Again, we may rid our government of "old rascals" and gropers or fumblers only to replace them with a new set of the same. For revolutionary techniques,--the more frequent they are the less bloody, but also, usually, the less socially important their results. The rarer social convulsions, usually produced by social forces long pent-up by a too selfish, rigid, or unrepresentative ruling class, usually can be avoided by real democracies. They are well to avoid; often they destroy more values than they create. Not infrequently, nevertheless, they free progressive forces for new functioning.

To suppose, again, that scientists or any other special group would be more capable of sustained altruism is as absurd as to single out any single type of men and assume that, by virtue of their viewpoint or method of thinking or familiarity with a special group of problems, they could be expected to prove impervious to the weaknesses afflicting the powerful.

World government appears to be the strongest of the governmental changes that are proposed as means of attacking the societal problems. It is inevitable if the race is to survive, but it is comparatively unavailable, with nationalism still exceedingly strong. Before we achieve it and make it stick, we must build up forces in its behalf stronger than those that seek to prevent it or pull it apart. These forces can be built up only by capable leaders of world opinion able to overcome nationalism.

2. For our purposes, the value of an economic reform must be measured by two criteria: First, by the extent to which it further extends economic justice by providing peaceful methods of making adjustments to changed socio-economic environments; second, by its effectiveness in preventing accumulation of bitterness and eventual violent conflicts of various kinds, ranging from strikes to bloody revolutions and international wars.

There is every reason for pursuing economic reforms with vigor. But what is needed if we are to make headway with them is a fresh approach, new slogans, better techniques, new attitudes. There is too little novelty in free trade, cooperatives, single tax, reduced working hours, and improved working conditions, social insurance, and state socialism as these are now formulated.

One of the greatest weaknesses of both employers' and employees' organizations has been lack of understanding by the leaders of each side of the problems and legitimate objectives of the other party. Certainly, with dictators and undemocratic techniques rampant in both types of organizations, it is clear that better trained societal leaders could make an enormous difference in labor relations, as well as in general economic reform.

3. As for raising the moral standards of the people, there seems little hope for greater social harmony by radical extension of institutionalized religions. Even if present

church memberships were tripled, it is doubtful that societal conflicts would subside. Perhaps divisive effects of religious sectarianism might even increase strife, even though it is equally probable that attempts to eliminate religion would doubtless produce indescribable chaos, unless a substitute for religion caused its demise. Most hopeful is character education. Since the technique we advocate involves character education, we shall defer discussion on this subject.

4. Approach to the solution of societal problems by social scientific techniques centers around two principal ideas: (1) research on mankind, (2) application of scientific principles regarding man to his biological improvement or to his social problems.

Application of negative eugenics to eliminate inferior stocks is being tried in several states. Positive eugenics is much slower in coming. It is hardly available yet as a technique, for instance, of improving the general standard of intelligence. It awaits development of favorable world opinion; it awaits considerable increase in our stock of certain knowledge in the biological and social sciences. Once this knowledge is ready, it will still require excellent societal leadership to persuade people to adopt it.

Meanwhile, such research must go on. It is undoubtedly an absolute essential of progress on the societal problems in the future. Nevertheless, enough knowledge already exists in regard to many matters for us to begin applying it, as, for

example, in the selection and training of potential leaders.

5. Those who place their main hope in education, differ in techniques. They need to make up their minds what must be their main line of endeavor in making a real contribution toward overcoming social lag. Does simply more education for more people accomplish this? We have more education now than ever before; yet, according to Robert M. Hutchins, 1/ we are more bewildered today than ever. Clearly, mere quantity of education and of the educated does not guarantee progress, or wisdom, or democracy. The right education for the right individuals might do much in that direction, however. The test of adequacy, or "rightness" of an education for our purposes is most reliably made by comparing the effectiveness of the educated in coping with problems they face with the effectiveness of the uneducated in facing similar situations. By these standards, how "right" has our past education been? Would we now complain of lack of good leaders, of social-civic apathy; would we be lagging in social progress if education had been geared to producing good leaders and followers, if we had developed understandings and interest in the societal problems backed up by problem-attacking and solving know-how?

Another group wishes to substitute for present education of the masses, a practical education in tool subjects followed by practical, vocational training and apprenticeships, plus a broad education for practical living. Close down, they say,

1/ As quoted by John Dodderidge Blane "Doctor Hutchins and I Shudder to Note", Saturday Evening Post (June 17, 1939), p.57.

most of the universities and give higher education only to the very best brains, personality, and character. All that can be said for this is that one can imagine no quicker method of preparing the way for a self-perpetuating aristocracy which would find means, as in Europe, of maintaining its ranks by various discriminatory techniques. No, there must be a high percentage of people who finish secondary school and a substantial number who complete college, if we want to prevent class stratification and develop better leaders and followers. Social problems must be attacked by many such, working competently together.

As for those who set their faith in improving higher education, guidance, civic education (which is primarily, as it appears to the writer who is a former teacher of Civics, education for followership in a democracy), we shall defer discussion of these until the next chapter, since they are so close to our own set-up for obtaining better leaders, through a program in the secondary schools.

Obtaining better leaders as a means of overcoming social lag.-- Of the means described above as those which are advocated most commonly and which seem most promising as approaches to overcoming the lag on the societal problems, that which seems to us to stand out preeminent is effort to obtain and train potential leaders. This conviction is based on the following points:

(1) Its novelty in this country. For various reasons

it has never been tried here. The desperate conditions of today which obstruct solutions of the societal problems warrant trying new methods, since it appears that older methods are ineffective in meeting the new situation, the new obstacles. The techniques which we contemplate applying had not been evolved until very recently.

(2) Its availability. Fairly adequate techniques are now available. Follow-up studies of closely similar efforts show good results can be obtained. The guidance set-up in our high schools provides an ideal and thoroughly logical instrument.

(3) Its present, special applicability. It appears that our foremost need is not ideas of what to do, or of how to do it. What we need most is capable men to choose objectives, to decide on techniques, and to set us on the road. We need men able to build intelligent bodies of followers to develop and to carry out ideas mutually arrived at, ideas already outlined by cultural thinkers and leaders as those that must be employed to reach solutions of the societal problems.

(4) Its practicability or soundness. Leadership education builds a more acceptable and more permanent foundation for social progress than does the present educational set-up without it. This is because it makes more specific preparational efforts to provide the precise type of men, (so far as education can be said to do so), to attack the most vital problems of tomorrow. Also, it can be easily put into oper-

ation, does not involve a too lengthy course of pioneering processes. It involves a campaign to persuade the public, school boards, and state departments of education which should not prove too difficult if we have our facts and reasoning well in hand and do not promise too much. We shall in any case be helped by a growing conviction on the part of many that American public school education is paying far too little attention to the task of adequately developing potentialities of the so-called "gifted children", a neglect which is daily costing American society incalculable waste in its assets and set-backs in its possibilities.

Reality and Nature of Leadership

It is now desirable that we examine leadership closely in regard to its character and functions. This is necessary before we can proceed to consider its relationship to social progress. If leadership be a figment of the imagination, or merely an instrument through which social forces act, we shall be better advised to turn our attention to other means of overcoming the difficulties that beset us.

The reality of leadership.-- To inquire whether leadership is a reality is not the absurd question it may seem at first thought. It is one that has been raised in one form or another by several thinkers. Neither is it a thing easily settled. It is like asking what magnetism is; we see it function, know how to use it, but must feebly rely on very inadequate definitions of it. So with leadership. We see

leaders function, use them, can describe their traits, and know that some people can lead well, while most do not easily lead, but prefer to follow leaders. Probably the best approaches to proving the reality of leadership are (1) the existence during all man's history of leaders; (2) their undoubted functions, and (3) the structure and form of leadership situations.

Leaders.-- Several researchers have studied leadership through the history and analysis of the character of leaders.[1/] Their results, indeed, show that leaders have always existed, even among the herd animals, to a degree. But the weight of evidence of all studies seems to indicate that leadership ability is not any single trait, but rather unusual ability in a set of traits, differing in weight according to the type of group, the individuals in the group, and the kind of leadership exerted. To be candid, even this has been questioned, it being maintained that the leader is nought but a group instrument. This question is examined under the next centerhead.

But all in all, it is hardly questionable that leaders have existed and do in fact exist. We have them on every hand.

Functions of leaders.-- If leaders have special functions in a group, then it must be conceded, that special abilities or special development of abilities are required. In order that the exceptional duties may be performed, it must require

1/ E. S. Bogardus, C. Cox, and others.

an exceptional person, who is recognized as exceptional by possession of unusual abilities or unusual development of abilities possessed in some degree by anyone.

What, then, do leaders (social leaders), primarily and in general, do? Perhaps the best means of arriving at generalizations of a leader's basic functions is had by an inductive process of analyzing and grouping traits and abilities urged by many writers as essential traits of leaders. From just such an inductive analysis, the writer offers the following list of eight functions: The leader--

(1) Provides a superior, worthy, and dependable example;

(2) Provides top direction of the led;

(3) Influences group opinion and feeling;

(4) Understands group and individual feeling, problems;

(5) Interprets facts and ideas to the group, and the group to other groups ("Represents" might be a separate function);

(6) Invents adaptations, techniques, formulas, slogans, etc.;

(7) Thinks rapidly, rationally, effectively;

(8) Organizes the group.

The group regards him as on the whole superior in performing these functions and so selects him as its leader.

Structure and form of leadership situations.-- What is meant by "structure" is by no means agreed on. Some studies apparently have it as a constellation of traits and their in-

terrelation, such a constellation as Cowley 1/ isolated. Others hold that structure of leadership refers to interstimulation between group and leader as Simpson 2/ indicates. Jennings 3/ looks upon it as "development and sphere of influence", the process by which a leader is selected and maintains his position,of influence.

We shall not review these studies at this point. It is enough to note that anything which is studied so closely and in such detail as these people have studied leadership, probably exists. Modern social scientists do not consider how many angels can stand on the point of a pin.

At present there is a well-developed movement toward the study of leadership by sociometric techniques as developed by Moreno 4/ and Jennings. Lewin 5/ and Partridge 6/ have also been active in this field.

The nature of leadership.-- To enumerate all the multifarious definitions of "leadership" and "leader" is of no par-

1/ William H. Cowley, "The Traits of Face-to-Face Leaders", Journal of Abnormal and Social Psychology XXVI (Oct.-Dec. 1931) pp. 304-313.

2/ Ray H. Simpson, Study of Those Who Influence and Those Who are Influenced in Discussion. Columbia Teachers' College, N.Y., 1938. T.C.C. No. 748.

3/ Helen S. Jennings,"The Structure of Leadership,"

4/ Jacob L. Moreno, Who Shall Survive? Nervous and Mental Disease Pub. Co., (1934)

5/ Kurt Lewin

6/ Ernest De Alton Partridge,

ticular value; but an analysis of the contents of the best ones is worth while.

Definitions are usually centered in terms of four kinds of central conceptions. The first conception relates to the position the leader occupies relative to others. Thus, Webster 1/ differentiates between two meanings: "The office, position, or dignity of a leader" and "ability to lead." Mumford 2/ also has this partly in mind when he says, "Leadership is the preeminence of one or a few individuals in a group in the process of control of societary phenomena."

The second conception relates primarily to leadership as ability. Minnick 3/ writes, "Leadership is the ability to guide the thoughts and actions of others who willingly and intelligently submit to such guidance."

A third conception of leadership is that it is primarily the activity of leading. Nash 4/ thinks that "Leadership implies influencing changes in the conduct of people....;real leadership is gauged by the ability of an individual or group of individuals to raise the 'wants' level of others [since] Conduct depends upon 'wants'".

Bogardus 5/ also emphasizes activity. To him, a leader is simply "a person who exerts special influence over a num-

1/ Noah S. Webster, Collegiate Dictionary.

2/ Eben Mumford, "Origins of Leadership", Amer. Journal of Sociology (Sept. 1906-Jan. 1907) p. 221.

3/ J. H. Minnick, "Leadership in Education", The Phi Delta Kappan (June 1929) 12: 45-46.

4/ J.B.Nash, "Leadership", The Phi Delta Kappan (June 1929) 12: 24-5.

5/ E.S.Bogardus, Leaders & Leadership, D.Ap.Cen.Co. N.Y. 1934, p.3.

ber of people." From this, he develops this definition of leadership:

> Leadership is personality in action under group conditions. It includes dominant personality traits of one person and receptive personality traits of many persons. It is interaction between specific traits of one person and other traits of the many in such a way that the course of action of the many is changed by the one.

Tead [1] likewise emphasizes activity. He says, "Leadership is the activity of influencing people to cooperate towards some goal which they come to find desirable." He places special emphasis on "the satisfaction and sense of self-fulfillment secured by the followers of the true leader." "Today", he says, "a psychologically and democratically adequate idea of leadership centers as much attention upon the results within the led as on the attributes or tangible methods of the leader...."

A fourth conception focuses attention on leadership as a social process, or part of the social process. Thus Morgan [2] says, "What mind is to the individual, leadership is to the race." Smith [3] says, "Leadership means concentration of social power, which becomes in essence a public trust."

1/ Ordway Tead, The Art of Leadership. McGraw-Hill Book Co. New York, 1935, p. 20.

2/ Joy Elmer Morgan, "Learning to be a Leader", National Education Journal (May 1927) 26: 139f.

3/ Henry Lester Smith, in a speech before the National Association of Deans of Women as reported in The New York Times February 22, 1935, 15: 4.

Swetman [1] emphasizes knowledge, action, and social intelligence. "Leadership, then", he says, "is dynamic social intelligence, or intelligence at work for the good of humanity."

A particularly penetrating student of leadership, Paul Pigors,[2] writes,

> Leadership is a process of mutual stimulation which, by the successful interplay of relevant individual differences, controls human energy in the pursuit of a common cause....Any person may be called a leader during the time when, and in-so far as, his will, feeling, and insight direct and control others in the pursuit of a cause which he represents.

We may as well conclude these citations of leadership definitions with the broad comment of Jones [3] who writes;

> Leadership is a universal human phenomenon. It is seen not only in all human relationships but also among all animals that lead a gregarious life. It is inevitable and inescapable. We cannot suppress it if we wish; we can only direct it and utilize it for human betterment. /and of the leader/ We may say that a leader is one who influences others to do something....the man who influences other men by the force of his personality or by more or less direct personal contact.

This writer's conclusions refer to a "societal leader" and "societal leadership." A societal leader is a face-to-face group leader who performs the functions [4] of a leader in the process of leading one or more groups attacking one or

1/ Ralph W. Swetman, "Leadership", Sierra Educational News (Nov. 1928) 25: 25f.

2/ Paul Pigors, Leadership or Domination. Houghton Mifflin. Boston, 1935, p. 16.

3/ Arthur J. Jones, Principles of Guidance. McGraw-Hill Book Company. New York, 1934, Revised Second Edition. p. 362.

4/ Stated on page 83 of this Chapter.

more societal problems. [1] Societal leadership is the ability, art, and activity of leading of a societal leader.

Basic types of leaders.-- Since the above definition of the type of leader we seek to obtain refers to a special kind, it is desirable that we analyze briefly at this point the basic types of leadership, as we understand it.

By the methods, functions, situations, and method of choice of leaders, they may be classified into basic and subtypes. This student has concluded that basic situation is the primary criterion for classification. Leaders are cultural leaders or "face-to-face" [2] (social and societal) leaders. Cultural leaders influence people indirectly through ideas; social leaders influence them more directly through more personal contact, in face-to-face situations, where personality must interact with followers.

Social leaders may be of three basic types, primarily depending on their leadership technique. They may be "headmen", [3] "dominators", [4] or democratic leaders. They may be classified also as leaders who create the group or leaders developed in and selected from the group. They may be executive and administrative, or they may be immediate contact leaders with few or no "lieutenants" through whom they direct the group. De-

1/ See Chapter I, p.2.

2/ William H. Cowley "The Traits of Face-to-Face Leaders", Journal of Abnormal and Social Psychology (Oct.-Dec. 1931) XXVI, pp. 304-313.

3/ William H Cowley, op. cit. p. 88 of this chapter.

4/ Paul Pigors, op. cit. p. 87 of this chapter.

pending on the basis in which they are employed, they may be professional or voluntary leaders. Depending on the institutional situation, they may be political, economic, social, military, or any of a dozen of other occupational-group categories. 1/

Leadership as a Requisite for Social Progress

We now propose to show (1) that leadership is essential to the social living of men; (2) that rational thought or intelligence is essential for social progress; (3) that such intelligence is or should be an outstanding characteristic of social leaders; and hence (4) that such leadership is essential to social progress.

Leadership essential to men.-- Mumford, 2/ in a careful study of the origins of leadership, shows it to be a powerful force acting for and upon society:

> Leadership, then, should be classified among the most general and essential modal social tendencies or forces, since it is intimately concerned in the expression of all the social propensities. Moreover, its importance to groups in the struggle for existence has made it an instinctive tendency both in the lower animals and in human beings. This instinctive propensity, under the modification and guidance of human reason, becomes one of the central innovating and directing forces in all social groups, and instead of its influence waning in modern societies, as is sometimes asserted, the probability is that nowhere in the associational series does this function play such an important role as in the most

1/ See further on types of leaders in Chap. VI under "What type of leader do we want?"

2/ Eben Mumford, "Origins of Leadership", American Journal of Sociology (Sept. 1906-Jan. 1907) p. 229.

> highly developed and plastic social groups. Where life is constantly growing more complex and problems are multiplying, and where men reason more about the best means of attaining social values, the extraordinary insight and sound judgment of the leader will be in ever-increasing demand.

In every war decade and during every serious economic depression, there have appeared articles, scientific and otherwise, testifying to the need for leaders. But space does not permit quoting many. With the advent of World War I, an enormous demand developed in American industry for good business and industrial executives and administrators. We had to develop them, and in a hurry. This was when universities began to develop colleges of business administration.

Churches loudly called for better leadership and developed leadership training. The armed forces also set about the task. Particularly in World War II the need and lack of leaders made itself pressingly apparent. Educators took up the cry in increasing earnestness as the public school system increased in size. Today, the demands have turned into veritable yells.

Why leadership is necessary to men.-- It is one thing to assert that men have always required leadership in the past and today increasingly demand it. It is another to say why. Space exists only to summarize the main reasons.

Leaders are necessary to men, because,

(1) They function to hold the group together, which may make all the difference between survival and non-survival for some or all of the group.

(2) They assist groups in making wise moves and in meeting novel situations with the group's maximum intelligence.

(3) This (2) they do by assuring that the group has the advantage of orderly discussion of matters calling for collective knowledge and action; and

(4) By so organizing their group that it will function effectively together in reaching common objectives agreed upon.

(5) They assume that the group has the advantage of central direction.

(6) They tend to improve group standards of conduct.

To consider more closely some of the above, let us imagine a group without a single leader, as it attempts to reach a decision upon a matter of judgment. It is obvious that the average judgment of the group will not be so readily arrived at without as with orderly discussion facilitated by a good presiding leader. Clearly, if the group's survival, or progress, or success depends upon a group decision, a group with a good, representative leader will not only have the advantage of speed in making a decision, but also much greater probability of accuracy or wisdom in their decision. Furthermore, disagreement in the absence of a leader might mount unrestrained to such heights and become so violent that, with rising emotions from clash of opinion, the group might be irremediably disorganized and entirely lose its identity. All the advantages which it offered would then be lost.

Two studies, one showing how average judgment improves

from group discussion by Gordon [1] and one showing the effect of organization of a disorganized ("cliqued up") group of boys by Kephart [2] illustrate some of the above reasons for the necessity of leadership.

Intelligence as an essential for social progress.-- Theories of the origin of progress have been partly adverted to in our preceding discussion of progress. In general, scientists and philosophers have concluded that one or more of the following have been the principal origins of progress and/or social progress: Evolution, character, competition, knowledge, intelligence, and individuals.

Since character applies to persons, individually or collectively, and competition is produced by environmental influences of a social character acting upon individuals, and therefore is an evolutionary force, they should be perhaps considered together. But because of their chief exponents, we shall consider them in the order stated.

Kimball [3] has analyzed and compared the chief tenets of Spencer and Ward. She says, in summarizing Spencer's theory

1/ Kate Gordon, "Group Judgements in the Field of Lifted Weights", Journal of Experimental Psychology (1924) 7: 398-400.

2/ N. C. Kephart, "A Method of Heightening Social Adjustment in an Institutional Group", American Journal of Ortho-Psychiatry (1938) 8: 710-1718, as summed up by Psychological Abstracts (1939) Number 1005.

3/ Elsa Peverly Kimball, Sociology and Education: An Analysis of the Theories of Spencer and Ward, Columbia University Press, New York (1932) pp. 292-294.

of the origin of progress:

> Progress to Spencer, is not a man-made phenomenon. Man cannot hasten the evolutionary process. All he can do is to see that the law of equal freedom prevails. Thereby, his various faculties will have scope to exercise and to grow and his nature will be adapted concomitantly with the other aspects of the universe....Lack of progress and the existence of human suffering is due to non-adaptation. The process of human adaptation depends upon the inheritance of acquired characteristics.

We have already quoted Spencer as to his theory of what should be avoided, that is, "arrangements which....prevent superiority from profiting from the rewards of superiority, or shield inferiority from the evils it entails." To him, the means of social progress encluded employment of character, an inherited pattern of personal powers of the will. In reply to Ward, who had written him asking his reactions to a book he sent, Spencer 1/ replied:

> I regard social progress as mainly a question of character, and not of knowledge or enlightenment. The inherited and organized natures of individuals, only little modifiable in the life of a generation, essentially determine for the time-being the type of social organization, in spite of any teaching, in spite of even bitter experience.

In other words, only by our powers of willed behavior did Spencer believe that we could avoid arrangements which would prevent the benign operation of the natural evolution of progress.

This idea of the importance of character is not to be put off lightly. That is is still basic to most thinking

1/ Ibid. p. 291.

about progress is evidenced in a talk by Budd, 1/ a modern industrial executive, at Rice Institute, when he includes as two of the things we need, "more self-control, self reliance." It is well-known, too, that the primary objective of the English public schools which have turned out leaders so satisfactorily in the past has always been development of character.

Many theorists of progress, particularly economists or economic philosophers, have believed that progress came primarily from economic competition. Believing in economic laissez-faire, this was natural. Macaulay, 2/ the historian, is found theorizing that, "In every human being there is a wish to ameliorate his own condition....a constant effort of every man to better himself." He held that this was one of two principles which "have often sufficed....to carry civilization rapidly forward." Bryce, 3/ a political philosopher, wrote, in speaking of the causes of human progress, "It is due partly....to competition." This idea is still a dominant one in very many economic circles. The fact is, competition and the urge to improve one's economic condition and other aspects of one's life situation cannot be neglected as basic

1/ Ralph Budd, "Progress and the Individual", Rice Institute Pamphlet Vol. XXII No. 3.

2/ Thomas B. Macauley, History of England. Vol. II, Chapter III (July 1935) p. 192. Published in England.

3/ James Bryce, "War and Human Progress", Atlantic Monthly (Sept. 1916).

origins of social progress, cultural progress as well.

As for knowledge as an origin of progress, its advocates are many, beginning in recorded history, perhaps, with Socrates, who said he was certain "that we shall be better and braver and less helpless if we think we ought to enquire, than we should have been if we indulged in the idle fancy that there was no knowing and no use in seeking to know what we do not know--".

Macaulay, also, paid his tribute to knowledge, for his other basic principle was "a tendency to perfection....in every experimental science." 1/ Apparently, Macaulay thought that scientific discovery would guarantee material progress, while social progress would be advanced by the innate desire of the individual to ameliorate his condition.

Ogburn 2/ illustrates another social scientist's conviction as to the importance of knowledge in respect to scientific progress. He says,

> ...cultural changes....in modern times....have been occurring faster and faster until today mankind is almost bewildered in its effort to keep adjusted to these ever-increasing social changes. This rapidity of social change /Ogburn's term, preferred to social "progress"/ may be due to the increase in invention which in turn is made possible by the accumulative nature of material culture.

Kilpatrick 3/ likewise pays homage to knowledge: "the

1/ Thomas B. Macauley, op. cit. p. 94.

2/ William G. Ogburn, Social Change. Huebsch, N.Y. (1923)

3/ William Kilpatrick, Education for a Changing Civilization. The Macmillan Co. New York, 1931, p. 49.

essential factor which makes and explains the modern world [of ever growing change] is the presence of tested thought and its applications...."

Smith [1] pointed out the importance of developing leaders who serve by virtue of special knowledge; "Leadership based upon special knowledge of the facts and flowering toward control of these facts for human ends is the democratic ideal."

But, important as knowledge is as a tool of men, it is still not the most vital one. For men to know, there must be the power of knowing, of remembering, of selecting, of developing understanding of, and using what is known. If we are to achieve change for the better we must have this power of thought, for intelligence is above all the means by which we adjust, the power of adjusting to environment, material and social. And today we especially need that aspect of intelligence which may be called social,-- the power of achieving satisfactory adjustments to other individuals and groups.

Says William H. Kilpatrick in reference to this, "Whenever growing change looms as large as now, adjustment to a static condition is disservice, not help. Rather must we seek adjustment to change itself." [2]

In the middle of World War I James Bryce reflected the rising interest of social thinkers in the possible impact of

1/ Thomas Vernon Smith, "Democratic Leadership", Scientific Monthly Vol. XXI (1925) pp. 613-628.

2/ Op. cit. p. 61.

applied, rational, interstimulated intelligence upon the progress of mankind in an article on "War and Human Progress":

> What, then, are the causes to which progress of mankind are due? It is due partly, no doubt, if not to strife, to competition. But chiefly to thought, which, as we have seen, is more often hindered than helped by war. It is the races that know how to think, rather than the far more numerous races that excel in fighting rather than in thinking, that have led the world."

H. G. Wells' famous remark must not be omitted. "Intelligence", he averred, "is the untested hope of Man in the race between education and catastrophe."

Cecil Clare North, in his "Social Problems and Social Planning: The Guidance of Social Change" holds that the needed educational avenue for achieving "deliberate social change" (his word for "social progress") is one creating "social understanding and social intelligence." 1/

Intelligence and leadership.-- But intelligence is something that inheres in living individuals, and nowhere else, except in a spiritual sense, in all Nature. It is individuals who have and apply it that we need. "All competent observers of the world's work", says E. L. Thorndike, "will agree that a very small number of men and women of great ability and good will account for a very large fraction of the world's progress. The top twentieth for at least half and possibly nine-tenths of it." 2/

1/ Cecil Clare North, Social Problems and Social Planning. McGraw-Hill Book Co., New York, 1932. Chapter VI.

2/ Edward L. Thorndike as quoted by James A. Emery in Vital Speeches (April 15, 1939) 5: 414-415.

We must realize that Dr. Thorndike to a large extent refers to the most intelligent twentieth to a large degree (great ability) but he also means the socially intelligent (good will) individuals.

In a recent plea for the use of scientists and scientific thought in social reconstruction, made by a leading physical scientist, C. E. K. Mees, 1/ we see compelling evidence that, if this is to be accomplished, men of a high order of intelligence will be required. Stupid men can hardly understand the scientific method let alone effectively apply it. It is perfectly clear that those who build the road for social progress must be intelligent and that their intelligence must be trained.

But it is one thing to insist on the importance of trained social intelligence and quite another to show how it may best be applied. Knowledge is a prerequisite of progress but it tends to develop into a non-functioning ideology rather than a working program. We must find people of initiative and social intelligence who will lead us to break with non-functioning ideology attached to tradition and bring it back "into vital touch with the upreaching impulses of men." 2/ In short, if we are to secure the application of the best products of cultural leaders in the social sciences, (the so-

1/ C. E. K. Mees, "Scientific Thought and Social Reconstruction", (Steinmetz Memorial Lecture) General Electric Review (March 1934) Vol. XXXVII, p. 114f.

2/ M. C. Otto, "Shall We Quit or See It Through?", Christian Century, 56 (Jan. 11, 1939) pp. 51f.

cially intelligent ideas), we must find individuals of ability and aptitude and develop them into leaders, persons with an intelligence which shall be responsible, directive, trained, and disposed to use knowledge for achieving societal betterment, that is to say, good societal leaders.

Leadership as an essential to social progress.-- Implied in the above is an important point. We have pointed out that good leaders must be developed. If progress is change for the better and if leadership can be good, bad, or mediocre, and if followership also can very in quality, any given leader may bring change for the worse to a group as well as for the better, or he may succeed in resisting change in the group almost entirely. Then leadership per se is no guarantee of progress.

We must, then, concede that we are here referring to an effective, a "good" leadership. Is it, we ask, possible that social progress may be achieved (1) without leadership of any kind, (2) in spite of bad leaders, (3) with good leaders but not because of them?

We may at once concede that in village communities practically without functioning leaders in the past, a slow process of empiricism has produced considerable cultural progress over a long period. But social progress must have been exceedingly slow, if, indeed, it occurred, for the word "social" implied "organization" and organization implies division of labor and responsibility. Some responsibility

are more important than others, and will, for the safety of the group, be delegated to the more capable, the most important being given to the most capable. Now, if a change for better is to be made, the most capable, most intelligent will be aware of it first, will urge it on the group. This is leadership bringing about more rapid change for the better than would otherwise result. And this is precisely what good leadership does do; it enables a group to make more rapid social changes for the better than would otherwise be attained. Groups of men compete for survival or happy and comfortable adjustment with other groups as well as with natural forces and other living species. They soon recognize that they achieve more rapid change for the better, and hence develop greater survival power in respect to other human and non-human groups and forces by virtue of following the strongest and wisest individuals among them, than they can hope to do if they do not follow them.

Neither do groups which have bad leaders achieve such progress. For leaders are adjudged bad or incompetent when and because they have done harm to the led group, or not helped it. Good and progressive things may be done for a bad reason, however, and often this is the case. Nevertheless, good things done for good reasons produce more rapid progress, and the good leader achieving them will bring his group forward faster, since group standards of ethics are bound to be raised by his example.

A leader is, after all, primarily a person of superior influence. He, more than anyone of a group, is responsible for achieving and consolidating social changes. He more than any other can and does function to select changes which represent progress and bring them into operation for the group's social improvement.

It is not particularly worth while to become involved in the problem of determinism in history, in respect to leaders. It is well-known that Thomas Carlyle 1/ opined that

> As I take it, universal history of what Man has accomplished in the world, is at bottom the history of the great men who have worked here....The soul of the world's history, it may be justly considered, were the history of these.

But the unromantic philosophers and sociologists of the later Nineteenth and Twentieth centuries soon attacked this biographical concept of the sources of progress. The evolutionists, as has been shown, led off, with Herbert Spencer leading off. Later, they were supplanted by Ward and others, the most brilliant of whom in respect to this particular angle William Fielding Ogburn, who decisively joined battle in book "Social Change" 2/ and later got closely to grips with the problem in a highly judicial article appearing in Social Forces, in 1926. In this article, "The Great Man Versus Social Forces" 3/ Ogburn opined that great men had if any-

1/ In "Lectures on Heroes, Hero-Worship, and the Heroic in History. (Given in 1840) Clarendon Press, Oxford, 1910.

2/ Ogburn, Social Change, Huebsch, 1923.

3/ Ogburn, in Social Forces, V (Dec. 1926) p.225ff; also see C.M.Case, "Leadership and Conjuncture; a Sociological Hypothesis" Sociology and Social Research XVII (July-Aug. 1933)pp.510-513.

thing less influence in producing social change than do social forces.

Recently, this tendency to depreciate the importance of individuals recognized as great men or leaders by their compeers in respect to their relative contribution to the influencing of history has been ably blunted and countered by Sydney Hook in a fascinating book 1/ devoted entirely to the problem. He redefines the hero or great man of Carlyle in an original way as the "event-making man", as contrasted with the man whose life is only eventful. He shows that in crucial periods event-making men have indeed changed history.

We shall have to be content herein to go no further into the philosophical morass of historical determinism than thus to cite, from very exhaustive reading into the subject, these references wherein the writer found greatest light.

Suffice it to conclude in summary that we have found four main reasons why social progress is highly dependent on good leadership: 2/

(1) It integrates the group for forward motion.

(2) It brings out the maximum power of the group to act progressively.

(3) It consistently aims to secure the maximum happiness, well-being, and self-realization of individual group members, of the group itself, and of other associated groups.

1/ Sydney Hook, The Hero in History, a Study in Limitation and Possibility. The John Day Co. New York (1943).

2/ In the first draft of this study, 53 pages were devoted to bringing out these points. But space considerations dictate that they be merely stated as above.

(4) It tends to maintain the continuance of progress by the group, not permitting it to become static and unprogressive.

The Present Lack of Good Social Leaders

Quantity, or available supply of good social leaders.--The situation that exists in respect to supply and quality of leaders is presently being cried to heaven by a number of writers. Probably the most persistent of these is Nicholas Murray Butler. Again and again he has deplored the lack of leaders. In 1937 he warned graduates at Columbia, 1/

> What the nation and the world are looking for is constructive, forward-facing, liberal, progressive, courageous leadership....The ranks of those who now would be from 35 to 50 years of age have been thinned by the war. It is now for those under 35 to grow up to the point where they may be used as recruits for the guidance and leadership of the people to which they belong."

George B. Cutten claimed in 1928 that one of the main reasons why trusts had overlapping boards of directors was due to a lack of good leaders. Also in politics, he said, lack of leaders existed: 2/

> Never within the scope of history has political leadership been so meager or of such poor quality. It is particularly true in the United States that we have never been so bereft of political leaders as during the last 25 years; and the supply seems to be lessening rather than increasing. This is very unfortunate; for democracy to be a success must be led and well led.

His excellent article on the situation and some of its causes

1/ As reported in The New York Times, June 1, 1937, p.17 col.6.

2/ New York Times Magazine, (December 30, 1928) p. 3.

appeared as the "feature" in the New York Sunday Times and was, significantly enough, titled "Our Search for Men Who Can Lead Us" with a sub-head, "America Finds that Democracy Needs More than are Available."

That the search was not successful was testified to by Raymond Moley in a 1940 speech, "Super-Government without Super-Men." 1/

From all of the major fields came evidences in the form of eager and desperate "calls to leadership" from 1920 on, that neither the quantity nor quality of leaders was by any means satisfactory. Without taking more space to cite them, let us consider some of the causes attributed for this lack of good leaders.

Causes for lack of good leaders: typical hypotheses.-- The commonest cause suggested was that the war (World War I) had thinned the ranks, as Butler had it. Charles Stelzle in a long letter in the New York Times says, 2/

> We find fault with our labor leaders and political leaders, and we often sneer at the amaturish methods of some of our social workers. If these are not what they should be, it is largely the fault of those who believe that they are above such occupations and who make no special effort to improve the leadership which exists.

He also points out, 3/

> To be sure, there is no special program whereby leadership may be discovered and utilized....

1/ Vital Speeches VI (May 15, 1940) pp. 450-3.

2/ N. Y. Times, October 9, 1938. Part IV, p. 9 col. 3.

3/ Ibid.

it certainly should not be difficult to improve upon the system--or lack of it--which now prevails in nearly every field.

Van Wyk Brooks regards our present day hostile to leaders.[1]

> Poets, painters, philosophers, men of science, and religions are all to be found stunted, starved, thwarted, embittered, prevented from taking even the first step in self-development in this amazing microcosm of our society....a society that stagnates for want of leadership, and at the same time, incurably suspicious of the very idea of leadership, saps away all those vital elements that produce leaders.

Cutten believes that [2]

> There are four American ideals which have become pretty generally accepted, and militate against the development of outstanding leadership. (1) We have a passion for emancipation....we are always trying to show leaders that we do not care for their leadership, and resent their assumption of authority, while at the same time being forced by the exigencies of the times to follow them slavishly over our own protest. (2) We are imbued with the fiction of equality. If all men are equal, then all could equally well serve as leaders....The back seat driver is the product of the equality complex. (3) We have a superstition concerning education which the facts do not justify....Every educated man is a leader. Of course if all men are born equal, then the differences in men which cause one to be a leader and hundreds to be followers must be in education!...we wonder at times if it is the college training which has qualified them for leadership or if the difficulties of certain college subjects have acted as an intelligence test.... (4) There is the glorious doctrine of the melting pot....The wonderful thing about the process is that it is expected to make us all leaders, so that any specific leaders would not be needed, or indeed, tolerated.

Other hypotheses are those of the eugenicists, who see

1/ In The Flowering of New England.(Quoted by Eginton. See Bibl.)

2/ Cutten, op. cit., p. 43.

the middle and upper classes, presumably having a higher average intelligence, having smaller families and direly forecast that the average national intelligence is gradually being depressed by this. [1] Others hold that the main causes are in education, a public education for mediocrity, [2] or too early vocational specialization in higher education. [3]

Few indeed link up the three main causes which we see. They are (1) failure of democracy to make service to it in the capacity of leader attractive; (2) Failure to find potential leaders early in life by a careful selection process; (3) Failure to give them special attention and leadership training, and higher educational financial assistance and training. The day has come when we must make good these failings.

Conclusions

Progress.-- Progress is a real thing. We are not concerned with biological progress, but with civilizational progress, which is not inevitable. Of the two kinds of civilizational or "artificial" progress, we are concerned with social progress rather than cultural progress. Social progress includes improvement in social organization and in habits of behavior. The principal requirement for the maintenance of

1/ See C. G. Campbell, "The Production of Leaders", Eugenics III (July 1930) p. 372.

2/ See Nathan G. Goodman, "What is the Outlook for Young Men?" School and Society 47 (Feb. 4, 1939) pp. 153-5.

3/ William Skinner, "Significance of Honors" Quoted in School and Society 51 (Jan. 13, 1940) pp. 61-2.

civilized progress is the purposive application of intelligent planning and goodwill. This planning must be backed up by mental integrity and must employ accumulated biological and social wisdom. Such a process has been called "social telesis".

"Social Lag".-- As Ogburn pointed out in Social Change, 1/ progress of men, both cultural and social, has been unsteady and uneven. Especially today, there is "social lag" for many reasons, but it was originally produced by the rapid spurts of cultural progress and the failure of society to make sufficiently rapid social adaptations. Among the accumulating social problems, those of large-group relationships have become by all odds the most serious for several reasons. If, in our efforts to achieve more rapid social progress, we wish to keep our eyes on the ball, we must never forget that the basic criterion of success is the extent to which changes achieved in our society contribute to the well-being of individuals who make up society. "They are the ends; all else is means." 2/

Means of overcoming "social lag".-- We have stated what seemed to us the most promising means: those which contemplate various changes proposed in government, economic reforms, improving men's morals, discovering and applying scientific principles regarding life, and various education reforms. These we have evaluated, and have reached the conclusion that the method which is most promising is that which contemplates

1/ William Fielding Ogburn, Social Change, Huebsch, New York, 1923. p. 199.

2/ Robert Buffault, op. cit. p. of this chapter.

obtaining in some manner better societal leaders. If education is able to find and prepare potential societal leaders through a special program, this method of attacking the societal problems appears to be better than others on grounds of its superior novelty, availability, present applicability, and practicability.

Reality and nature of leadership.-- We have shown that the historical existence of leaders, the recognized characteristic functions of social leaders, and the scientific study of the forms and structures of leadership situations all point indisputably to the reality of leadership. These, plus our ability to classify leaders into various types, define the nature of leadership. We then define one of these types of social leaders. They are different from cultural leaders who influence people directly in face-to-face situations, where leader personality must interact with that of the followers. We then subdivide social leaders into headmen, dominators, and democratic leaders, and mention other means of classifying them than this one which is based upon the method of employing social authority.

Leadership as a requisite for social progress.-- Here we have explored and developed the following argument, to wit: That leadership is essential to the social existence of men; that rational thought is essential for social progress; that such intelligence is, or should be, characteristic of social leaders; and that their leadership is therefore essential

to progress. Here, the crux of the argument is in the extent to which leaders are able to determine events, the importance of their influence on history, a controversial topic dear to the historical philosophers. We have cited the most valuable references on this topic, indicated we adhere to the viewpoint so well set forth by Sydney Hook [1/] in his recent book, and concluded the discussion by stating four reasons why we believe it is a fact that leaders are a force of major and fundamental importance in achievement of social progress.

The present lack of good leaders.-- We have presented evidence that leaders and thinkers are complaining of the increasing derth, since about 1920, of leaders in general and of good ones in particular. We have presented a sampling of hypotheses suggested as possible explanations of this condition, and have concluded that we lack them principally because of (1) the failure of democracy to make social leadership in its service attractive, (2) failure to find potential leaders early in life by a careful process of selection, and (3) failure to give them special attention, training, and financial assistance toward higher education.

The solution suggested.-- The solution we have in mind, then, is to obtain better societal leaders, (defined previously in this study) by means of a program to this end in the secondary schools. Whether or not this is the place where we should center our efforts and whether we are likely to succeed there

1/ Sydney Hook, op. cit. p. 102 of this chapter.

is discussed in the following chapter. The remainder of the study is devoted to developing a feasible and acceptable program whereby we may find, counsel, train, and place potential leaders in such manner that we shall increase the supply of social leaders and improve the quality of social and societal leadership.

CHAPTER VI

OBTAINING BETTER SOCIETAL LEADERS

Introductory.-- "Our most conspicuous failure," says Charles Stelzle, "is in finding and enlisting competent leaders in those activities which have to do with social, economic, and political welfare." 1/ Long ago James Bryce warned us not to count too heavily on our theory of equality, and stressed what he called "the Natural Inequality" of mankind. "Natural inequality," he wrote, "has been and must continue to be one of the most patent and effective factors in human society." 2/ A recent student of leadership education writes, "Our methods have failed to emphasize the importance of having well-prepared people to fill the positions of responsibility. The element of chance has largely entered into the method of securing leaders, backed by the belief that when the crises come, someone would step forward and restore society to normalcy." 3/ Another speaks of American methods of obtaining and training leaders as being "hit-or-miss" and "haphazard". John Dewey wrote, "Taking history as a whole, the selection of rulers

1/ New York Times, October 9, 1938, Section IV, p. 3, in a letter.

2/ Modern Democracies, The Macmillan Co. New York, 1922.

3/ Laroy Smith Hays, A Study of Leadership in the Extra-Curricular Activities of High School Pupils, Louisiana State University, 1937. An unpublished master's thesis.

and equipment of them with powers has been a matter of political accident." 1/

Granting that there is much criticism of our slipshod lack of attention to the problem of obtaining and selecting good leaders, just what are our means of obtaining them? What can we do to improve this situation? After all, as J. N. Vaughan says, "The precise means for procuring the emergence of significant persons are not laid down once and for all." 2/

Available Means of Obtaining Leaders

Past Means.-- The first leader was literally that. As Whitehead 3/ pointed out, he was simply the first man in a file of people. The group picked him, or he picked himself, as the best guide it could get. He was the strongest, the wisest, the most cunning, or the oldest or bravest. Lacking him, say, killed in battle, the group would simply have "obtained" the next best from its number for its purposes. As simple as that. Basically, leaders are still picked the same way and many of them for very similar qualities. Sometimes they are self-appointed "men on horseback." They obtain us for their followers.

Recent means.-- We announce a vacancy; leader wanted. Someone nominates a candidate, or someone offers his candi-

1/ John Dewey, The Public and Its Problems, Holt. New York, 1927, p. 78.

2/ In "Hypothesis and Myth", Commonweal (Jan. 13, 1939) 29: 314-17.

3/ In Leadership in a Free Society, Harvard Univ. Press, 1935 Preface p. vi.

dacy, or a nominating committee is duly chosen and proceeds to make a selection for our election. Did we have reason to expect candidates would come forward or be willing to serve? They always had; it was an honor; it was a public duty; sometimes, you even were paid for your trouble, cash, as well as prestige. But what reason had we to expect that there would always be enough leaders? Enough decent leaders, that is? Didn't we educate our people, give them the tools for self-improvement, for knowledge? Couldn't a ditchdigger's son become president of a great corporation or of the country itself? Anyone who had the ability could get the experience. That is what he would need, ability, education, experience. What more? Much more!

In the first place, things were getting more complicated all the time in our social organization. Few men could do a good job of leadership of anything with just an ordinary academic education, experience, and common sense. He needed training, too.

Basic motivations for assumption of leadership.-- But what are the basic motives we have always counted on to impel people to willingly cooperate by leading, even anxious to do so, or which make them willing to actively cooperate with leaders, even anxious to do so? We have depended on (1) our people's high valuation of the opportunity vouchsafed to them and previously won for them to have a "say" in their affairs, (2) their conviction that to be made a leader was to be hon-

ored, (3) their recognition of the principle of public duty, (4) their inducement by financial gain, (5) their desire to render a service, (6) their interest in "things political."

Underevaluation of autonomy.-- Today we are simply forgetting or are unable to imagine what it would be like to have no liberty, no "say" in our affairs. Accordingly we desperately undervalue this privilege won for us by our forbears until we feel some particular pinch, some unwelcome application of authority to us personally. We are convinced that to accept leadership in many democratic situations is to be soon reviled, blamed, and dishonored. We are greatly weakened in our faith that public service is a duty. In any case, we find it increasingly easy to avoid such service, since respectable people we know have "ducked" responsibility. We have come to regard the responsibility of social leadership as one of great difficulty and small reward, financial or otherwise. Some perseveringly seek or accept leadership or followership activity in order to render some special service in which they strongly believe. But more do the same for a private service to themselves or to their friends for what there is in it for them.

As a nation, we have turned away from "things political" almost en masse. We are nauseated by politics, social welfare "reformers", conservatives, radical, the whole "kit and caboodle" of them. We turn to more pleasant interests. We turn to the sport's page, the women's page, music, literature,

science, medicine, the "funnies", the war, the "movies", our personal religious, racial, or national prejudices, golf, tennis, motoring, "shows", --anything! Let the politicians stew in their own juice! Go to the church supper; sometimes go to church; serve on a church committee when you are dragooned into it; otherwise you are suspect. Never mind the associations! What can their "resolutions" or letters to legislatures and congressmen do? Anyway, we don't believe in special pressures; let representatives make up their minds free of such pressures. Let George do it! Let even "big business do it!" Let the Russians do it! The world's a huge mess; I have to keep my peace of mind. I've got enough troubles without worrying my head about things like these! Ad lib, ad infinitum!

The effect of undervaluing your "say" in public affairs.--We all know the result. George, the cheap, neighborhood politician whose private life would not bear inspection for a moment; he does it! Big business does it! The Russians do it! The demogogues and the dictators do it! The labor bosses do it! And then, you are in a war,--drafted; you are in a strike, --drafted; you are in an inflation,--drafted; you have a huge public debt and huge taxes that you are drafted to pay. You think of yourself as helpless, more so all the time. The more you think you are helpless, the less you do to remedy your situation, and the worse the situation gets. Somebody do something, you say! What is this world coming to, you say!

Bell, L. G. Jr. '16
Keelan C. J. '25
Mahoney E. E. '15
McCarthy M. R. '27
[illegible] E. L. '32
[illegible] H. M. 38
Martin R. J. 34
[illegible] 15
Panlett E. 39
[illegible] F. C. 28
Powers M. 33
Powers R. 33
[illegible] R. 32
Sullivan W. L. '17
Stubbs H. C. '17
Shaw G. E. '19
Stackhouse M. K. 34
[illegible] '18
Trapp E. A. '18
Troy [illegible] '15
[illegible]
[illegible] E.
Yorke L. C. Edw '12

[illegible] High School, San Diego, Calif.

[illegible] High School, Westland, Mich.

[illegible] High School, San Angelo, Texas.

[illegible] Junior College, Brigham Township.

[illegible] South School, Dowagiac, Mich.

[illegible] Consolidated [illegible] High School, College [illegible]

[illegible] Junior High School, Bloomington, Ind.

And somebody does do something. The "man on horseback" appears. He does something all right. You shout, "Hurrah!" at first; later you sit in your cellar hole in your rags; or you are injured, crippled, dead, or you are starving to death. You are to blame. You waited for someone else to do something, --anything. And he did. He did you!

Study of origins of leaders in seeking a remedy.-- When these motives do not operate as expected, when competent leaders fail to come forward, we have no choice but to try to overcome the causes for this situation. Reference to the original motives which have been said to traditionally impell leaders to serve, or to accept social responsibility, indicates that most of them have to do with social attitudes rooted in ways of looking at life. If these attitudes are lacking today or are greatly weakened, we must find ways of strengthening and rebuilding them.

Choice of a point of view on the origins of leadership talent.-- Much has been written on the origins of leadership in order to lay the foundation for intelligent action on this problem. Different thinkers 1/ have variously maintained (1) that leadership talent is totally inherited; (2) that leaders simply are providentially supplied by the need for them; (3) that they come from certain socio-economic backgrounds; (4) that experiences they meet in life and the groups in which they find themselves are almost the only causes for the development of leadership; (5) that finally, all of these influ-

1/ See classified biblio. references "Origins of Leadership."

ences play their part, none being of minor importance. The writer finds himself in this last group.

Can We Teach Leadership?

Education as planned environment.-- Educators are apt to forget what they are primarily doing when they set up an educational program. A school is an arranged, artificial environment. Education is purposively planned experience. The objective of educational planners is to set up a medium wherein the next generation may most effectively have transmitted and imparted to it the cultural achievements and modes of behavior, which support civilized society.

A planned environment for leadership education?-- If leadership capacity is partly inherited, we still can do nothing at present to increase the number of persons born with it unless and until we know enough about, and are persuaded to use positive eugenics. If crises bring out leadership ability, surely today we have such crises. If leaders rise by selection or variation we have selective techniques and variety of ability. This is not to say that such selection techniques cannot stand improvement. We can likewise greatly develop and refine our methods of spotting various types of ability,-- a basic thesis of this study. If leadership is developed by environment we know how to arrange environment. We have always done this through education. But can we so arrange it as really and substantially to bring out and improve potential leaders?

Proof that leadership can be taught.-- It was recognized by Professor Charles C. Peters of Pennsylvania State College that light was needed on this subject. Apparently, he suggested the problem to two students and assisted them in setting it up.

Robert Ray Merrill in his Master's thesis wrote, "If leadership can be taught in the regular organization of the school, there are good reasons why it should be included in the curriculum of every school. If it cannot be taught, this fact should be known so that time and money need not be wasted in the attempt." 1/

He proceeded to study leadership to decide upon the traits he would concentrate upon developing. He then worked out six lessons and taught them personally in a high school. Students in the classes to be taught were rated by children who knew them on the leadership traits chosen by Merrill. At the completion of this brief course, they were again rated. The results showed a small average increment of leadership talent in these traits as compared to a control group.

This study was followed up three years later by George A. Eichler 2/ of the same college who wrote a doctor's thesis on the basis of his own experiments. A sophmore and senior group

1/ Robert Ray Merrill, The Effect of Direct Leadership Instruction in High School. Pennsylvania State College, Unpublished Master's Degree Thesis 1931.

2/ George A. Eichler, Studies in Student Leadership: Controlled Experiments in the Teaching of Leadership with a Quantitative Analysis of the Components of Leadership. Doctor's thesis, 1934. (See a summary in Penn. State Studies in Education, No. 10.)

and control classes were selected in the Northampton, Pennsylvania schools. Teachers then taught prepared lessons designed to inculcate or improve certain leadership traits, eleven in all, which Eichler had decided upon after broad study and long deliberation.

Similar rating techniques were used on the taught and on the control groups before and after the course. Results: a very definite average increase in leadership ratings as compared to students in the control groups. The sophmore class in leadership was continued a second year. The chances were then 26.8 to 1 that the differences between their average ratings and the control groups ratings were real differences.

Eichler's study definitely confirmed Merrill's work. Apparently, there is good reason to believe that the case for leadership as a group of traits which can be inculcated to a substantial degree by direct instruction is proven.

Eichler is convinced that if leadership instruction is supplemented by leadership training projects and guidance, much more substantial results can be achieved. To him it is a question of further refinement in our knowledge of how and what to teach. Proving that there are several educators who have faith that it ought at least to be tried, there are actually several courses in leadership, most of them for student officers, now being taught in American High Schools. We shall refer to these in Chapter IX.

What have Secondary Schools Done in Leadership Education?

The school and leadership ability.-- Many leaders once went through high school. Did secondary education help to develop their leadership talent? Or was this result merely coincidental? Certainly, many become leaders without even a good grammar school education. Were the leaders who went through high school helped only by chance, or through their own initiative (like a boy who develops an "army" and makes himself its "general"), no school plan for developing leadership talents existing? Or have there always been informal efforts on the part of educators to develop potential leadership when and where subjectively so diagnosed? Have the recently-developed student government and enlarged extra-curricular programs increased considerably the amount and quality of leadership training offered or available in the high school and resulted in producing more and better leaders? Have some schools purposively planned leadership training? Have these failed or succeeded?

On some of these questions, considerable material has been collected. On most of them it is scanty or non-existent. We must depend pretty much on our reasoning from clues here and there as we have encountered them.

Leadership, by practically universal consent of students of it at present, is a function of group living. It cannot be studied in the absence of a specific group in relation to

a specific leader. This position is, at least, the strong trend at present. Wherever such a group or groups assemble as a school constitutes, there ought to develop leadership somewhere by someone. But too often, the chief leadership (or dominative ability) that was developed has been that of the teachers or principal. Student leadership in the old-time school was often squelched by stern academicians whose single-minded goal was the imparting of knowledge. They judged each and all by criterions associated with this goal and almost no other. It was the summum bonum: to impart and to achieve knowledge, for teachers and students respectively. Everything else was a by-product. To a greater or lesser degree all high schools' efforts reflected this attitude.

Student government development, in general.-- Only as democracy seemed to falter, to demand more and better leadership and followership, was anything done which clearly represented any strong admixture of another main goal of education. First, it was recognized that schools must work definitely to produce a civicly informed citizenry. Then, it was agreed that the best way to turn knowledge to use, to formation of habits of behavior was to train followers and student leaders through student self-government set-ups. This was tried sparingly with no marked degree of enthusiasm by educators, and with failure resulting as often as success, at least in the estimation of teachers, and often of students as well. Pretty general agreement developed that failures were often

due to poor selection of leaders by the students, or simply to poor leadership.

Only recently has there been real effort to train selected student officers in leadership traits and techniques. Only very recently have equality-minded people begun to see that democratic leadership is a difficult job requiring specific knowledges and abilities which can and should be improved by direct education for the purpose. Only very lately has it been at all considered right and sensible to educate followers on how to select good leaders. We have been going on haphazard, instinctive plans in respect to the education of potential leaders and selection of leaders. We have regarded this field as a sacred province guarded by democratic taboos. We have been afraid to plan, to persuade, to educate in this field.

Leadership training and leadership education efforts in general.-- Without any question, the best source of information on efforts of secondary education to educate for leadership in general is the book of Jones [1] which summarizes the history of the subject. A number of studies on student government will be found in the bibliography of this paper. European countries now and formerly, and also ancient Greece and Rome trained and educated specifically for leadership; and the United States (through Colonial American schools more so), in the past has had this somewhat in mind.

1/ Op. cit.

Here and there in this country, we are finding a course here and there in Psychology of Leadership, 1/ Business Leadership, 2/ Recreational Leadership, 3/ Group Leadership, Foremanship, Management, and Administration. The number of courses is small and mainly in colleges of one kind or another. A very much smaller number of efforts are being reported in high school. Groups interested in improving leadership and in attempting to train for their type of leadership include the churches, nursing, teachers' training schools and colleges, technical and business colleges, personnel associations, Boy and Girl Scouts, adult education, Parent-Teacher Associations, agricultural education and 4-H Clubs, Y.M. and Y.W.C.A.'s, selling organizations, public health organizations, and some large industries.

What survey studies are being made?-- Clem and Dodge 4/ compiled lists of former leaders in the Rome (N.Y.) Free Academy. They found that the leaders had the best incomes. Of a compilation of former scholars there, they found that the average income was lower than that of the leaders, even lower than poorer scholars from a random list, and much lower than the leaders, who led in income. This conclusion is born out

1/ Offered at Purdue University.

2/ Offered at Boston University, College of Business Administration.

3/ Offered at Purdue University.

4/ Orlie M. Clem and Seward B. Dodge "The Relation of H.S. Leadership and Scholarship to Post-School Success," Peabody Journal of Education (May 1933) 10: 321-9.

in similar studies. Good personality and social intelligence pay better than marks achieved from the old academic education. These were by-products; for leadership training was entirely "extra-curricular." Still, this was success as judged by income; conclusions as to service rendered were not drawn. Contributions are more apt to be on the side of the scholars, though not always, by any means. It depends on the nature of the education received. Carman [1] holds we are by no means measuring up to the task of producing leaders in the colleges. Hill, [2] and Hays, [3] and many others maintain that the intermediate grades and the high schools are by no means holding up their end of the job. Yet Courtenay [4] who studied persistence of leadership concludes, "Leadership is a persistent force projecting itself beyond school years into adult life." Miller [5] agrees that it projects itself from college into adult years. Will Durant [6] has carefully outlined his idea of a civil

1/ H. J. Carman, "Making of Leadership; the college must measure up to the size of the job", Saturday Review of Literature (Sept. 16, 1944) Vol. 27: 9-11

2/ Margaret C. Hill, The Development of Leadership in the Intermediate Grades of the Public Elementary Schools of Jersey City. Unpublished Master's Thesis, 1936, Fordham University.

3/ Laroy Smith Hays, A study of Leadership in the Extra-Curricular Activities of High School Pupils. Unpublished Master's Thesis, Louisiana State University, 1937.

4/ Mary Ethel Courtenay, The Personality of Leadership in Girl Graduates of the Lindblom High School, Chicago. Unpublished Master's Thesis, 1937, Chicago University.

5/ R. E. Miller, Comparative Leadership and Vocational Progress of Certain College Groups Graduating 1926-1933, Iowa State College. Unpublished Master's Thesis, 1934.

6/ Will Durant, "Shall We Train Our Sons for Public Office?", American Magazine (Sept. 1933) 116: 42-43, 138-139.

academy set up by the national government and designed to train civil leaders as purposively as we now train naval and army officers. Brandt [1] says that we are not educating scientist-scholars for leadership. Sumption [2] follows up 300 children who were found to be gifted and educated separately as such in Cleveland. He finds that they have greatly improved over similar gifted children not so educated in Cleveland.

What is being done, then? We are doing something, but much too little in view of the demands, and in a much too hit-or-miss, haphazard manner. But the field shows every evidence of rapid present and future growth.

Should Democracy Educate for Leadership?

What are the chief pillars of democracy?-- Here is a subject wherein one man's opinion is about as good as another. Most people are partisans of the particular kind of effort in which they are engaged. The writer is no exception. He places education very high in the list, though not first. He qualifies it that it must be education of the right sort. To him the pillars of democracy seem to be primarily, (1) a non-stratified economic society with widespread freeholds; i.e. ownerships of land and real estate, (2) education of the kind

1/ J. A. Brandt, "Is the Scientist-Scholar Ready for Leadership?" Saturday Review of Literature (Sept. 29, 1945) 28: 7-9.

2/ Merle Richard Sumption, An Evaluation of the Cleveland Public School Program for the Education of Gifted Children, Doctor's Thesis, Ohio University, 1940. See also Sumption's book Three Hundred Gifted Children. World Book Company. Yonkers-on-Hudson, N. Y. 1941.

that passes on the knowledge, traditions, and behaviors appropriate to democratic ideals, (3) government itself, with its three main branches, and its constitution, and (4) freedom of religion and other legislative or constitutional provisions or reforms. These are listed in the order of their importance in maintaining democracy, as the writer sees it. But basic to all of them is maintenance of the basic social institutions of the family and the ideal of the dignity of the individual human being.

Education as a pillar of democracy.-- Every society of man tends as it matures to concentrate in the hands of a few (increasingly fewer), most of the wealth. China, through the centuries has had its peasant rebellions, European countries also. With the industrial revolution, a new ordering of wealth, a new valuation of kinds of wealth took place which wrought an economic and social revolution. In the New World, there was also the influence of new lands and the building of an entirely fresh civilization. This, plus the traditions of freedom inherited from the liberals of the Old World in England and France has produced a non-stratified society in America, one having its solid base in widespread ownership of land and buildings. 1/ It is a task of education to foster democracy by resisting economic tendencies which would stratify American society. But it is also education's job to fortify and strengthen democracy in many other ways, ways in which educa-

1/ See Lewis Corey, The Crisis of the Middle Classes, Covoci, New York, 1935., p. 29. Also poem by Archibald McLeish Liberty.

tion is probably the more important influence.

It is this writer's opinion that the society produces the education to pass on its culture, not the reverse. Public education very much more reflects the social status of a people than the reverse. No education is permitted which a ruling class opposes any more than a democratic minority can hope to produce a public education opposed by a ruling majority.

Nevertheless, American education, by adopting dynamic plans, by being kept up to date by an active, social-minded leadership, and by setting social progress goals can do more than merely reflect most social conditions other than the economic ones. In developing itself into an ideal medium for passing on knowledges, traditions, and behaviors appropriate to democratic idealism, it can do more to obtain practical realization of objectives distantly agreed upon by political leaders than any other one force. First, the basic economic condition that makes possible the free, unhampered setting by liberal leaders of agreed-on goals; then the education to guarantee that these goals, these traditions of democracy, these ways of behaving together shall become a living part of our culture. Without this process, the government can no longer be composed of leaders looking toward those goals; neither will the basic gains of social reform already achieved by the people through their government be maintained. Education of the right kind to do this job is second in importance only, therefore, to the economic condi-

tion which makes free, democratic public schools possible in the first place.

In view of the above discussion, we must conclude that a keystone in the democratic arch is education of the kind calculated to sustain democracy. Probably if economic conditions no longer support this kind of education, the entire structure of it would change. It might become as it was in England until very recently,--an arrangement calculated to support, instead, a definite stratification of social classes dominated by a ruling class one of whose chief differenciations consisted in monopoly of a private education for public leadership in England's so-called "public schools." Assuming that economic stratification can be postponed, there is little doubt that an education can be maintained in America which will constitute a vastly important factor in supporting, maintaining, and advancing the democratic way of life.

Kinds of Education which Especially Support Democracy and Social Gains

This leads to the question of what kind of education we must deem most qualified to pursue this objective.

Civic Education.-- Civic education as now conceived 1/ or practiced, as it appears to the writer, is devoted to producing a better quality of participation, a greater interest among the citizenry in "things political." 2/ It concentrates

1/ See J. J. Mahoney and D. S. Snedden, in Bibliography.

2/ See J. J. Mahoney, in Bibliography.

educational attention on producing better citizens,--primarily better followers. No leader can lead without followers. The better the quality of followership, the more effective can be the leadership. Hence civic education is absolutely essential. These points cannot be too strongly emphasized. Nevertheless, we hold it is equally essential (and definitely feasible) that those best qualified to lead should be discovered and so processed educationally that their capacities and their availability for service of democracy would be developed to the utmost.

Some more concessions.-- Leaders and followers are not sheep and goats; no leader leads in all situations. To be a good leader, one must know how to be a good follower. To be a good follower, one must know at least enough about leadership to know how to select good leaders and how to judge the quality of leadership performance. But with all these "ifs" and "buts" entered on the record, it cannot be denied that some persons are naturally endowed with more capacity for leadership, while most persons are distinctly strong or equipped for cooperating with leaders rather than in taking the lead themselves. If democracy must have for its survival, capable, cooperative citizens, it is precisely as dependent for its survival upon the active services of the best leaders it can find and train. We shall not err by saying it is more so.

Summary.-- How, then, shall we think of leadership educa-

tion and how of civic education in reference to each other and to democracy? We may think of leadership education, if we please, as simply an important aspect of civic education, in that it seeks to produce citizens who can lead and are trained to do so. But obviously few citizens however trained are so equipped that they will be often chosen. Exceptional ability and personality is just that,--something exceptional, not common. We prefer to think of leadership education as a kind of education for potential leaders who could never be construed to include, certainly, more than half, and usually by no means that many of any random school group. We prefer to think of it as a bulwark of democracy from the top level, a means by which the school can function to influence the conduct of all democratic social processes, from the top government positions right down the line to the position of social authority in the smallest group. The conduct and direction of group affairs is distinctly in the province and under the control of the leader. Here is where he can make or break democracy and future social progress, and the school through him.

What Kind of Leaders Should Democracy Educate For?

Traits from functions.-- First of all, we need to educate for simple ability to lead in a democracy. The best way to determine what ability to lead (not dictate) demands is to refer back to the functions of a leader as analyzed in Chapter V, (page). We must be very general at this point, since

leadership situations vastly differ. To provide a good example, a leader must be one whom the group admires and to a degree imitates, regarding him or her as superior according to its ethical and other standards. He must, then, have high ethical and other group-valued standards and the habit and power of living up to them. He is a man having group-valued principles which the group can see guide his behavior and his decisions. He must be an active, healthy person full of vitality and energy. He has much work to do and responsibility for others. The group cannot afford to have him break down. This work requires a healthy and superior mental power. But usually, it is likely that the democratic group will do best with an individual whose intelligence level is not too far away from the average of its own. For he must also be one who understands them, who can judge what is good and what is possible for them by what is good and possible for himself. For he must have power to influence the group. Hence, he must first be regarded by it as on a plane to understand and feel for them. Influence will be largely dependent upon this bond of sympathetic, informed understanding. The leader must have the courage that makes initiative possible, as well as the knowledges which will make the courageous application of initiative practicable. He must have the type of mind that makes decisions much more rapidly than the average. He must know the techniques of thinking, of organization and direction, and have superior power to interpret or teach, and to originate. He must be an

altogether likeable person. It is desirable that he be taller than the group.

Here we have given the usual superlative picture of the good leader. It has little value except as a measuring stick, an ideal objective. Few leaders can measure up 100 per cent. Few have to do so. If we are asked what must the social leader or the societal leader have more than anything else, we can only use another generality: He must have a superior degree of "social intelligence." This above all.

The nature of social intelligence.-- Thorndike is quoted as defining social intelligence as "the ability to understand and manage men and women, boys and girls--to act wisely in human relations."

Professor John J. Mahoney writes, 1/

> But social intelligence is not a major concern of the schools. The I.Q., which has cast such a spell over educators in recent years, is not an accurate measure....Generally speaking, the schools do not measure or test this ability. Furthermore, and again generally speaking, they do not develop it consciously, purposively, specifically. Nor do they sense the need. But the need is there, indubitably. And in this period of feverish educational experimentation and research, this matter of measuring the ability to act wisely in human relations should become a matter of major educational concern.

The number of those who are pressing for education for social intelligence is large and impressive in its quality. Ellwood writes,

> I wish to be quite arbitrary and say that the objectives of a socialized education should be so-

1/ In For Us the Living. Harper, 1945.

cial intelligence, a sense of social honor, and public spirit....Surely, if we had such public spirit (as Clemenceau) we would not have to complain that the best brains and energy of our young men go into commercial and financial pursuits... 1/

To F. Stuart Chapin we are indebted for an excellent description of the kind of leader we must educate for. He says,2/

....the group builder, the socialized leader's technique of leadership deserves serious study and consideration. /He is/....not self-centered or self-appointed,...he is rather self-effacing and prescribes rather than represses. He stimulates, suggests, inspires. He endeavors to arouse to its utmost extent the capacity of individual followers for self-expression....organizing the emotions of group members around the plan or cause in the interest of developing a sentiment of loyalty, institutionalizing the organization rather than personalizing it /He makes/ intelligent use of conference methods and /places/ main reliance on the principle of growth from within. The socialized leader creates conditions under which subordinates are disciplined by self-inflicted rules and regulations.

The socialized leader exerts control by persuasion and not prescription--appeal is made to public opinion, personal ideals, and enlightenment, rather than to the controlling influence of law, custom, pomp, and ceremony. Belief in the disinterested motives of the leader is an effective form of control. But the test of seriousness of purpose is always renunciation of material rewards, for the false prophet does not renunciate.

Kinds of leadership we don't want.-- Another way to define the kind of leader we need is to indicate the kind we wish to avoid producing or to produce smaller quantities of. We don't want figureheads, "rubber stamps", head men 3/ or

1/ Charles A. Ellwood, "What Shall we do with Our Schools?", National Education Association Journal (Jan. 1939) XXVIII, p.13.

2/ F. Stuart Chapin, "Socialized Leadership", Social Forces (Nov. 1924) III, p. 58.

3/ See in bibliography, W. H. Cowley.

intellectuals [1] who are unwilling to come into sufficiently close contact with the people and their problems to be soiled by such contact literally or figuratively. We don't want to produce bosses, dominators, dictators, drivers. [2] We don't want unscrupulous or dishonest politicians, demagogues, or other democratic racketeers. We wish to head off in their youth development of exploiters, self-seeking administrators, selfish and ruthless manipulators [3] of economic power or other controls of a social and economic variety. We wish to reduce the number of persons who can become scientists or engineers and who directly or indirectly have enormous influence upon the conditions under which people toil, upon the means by which they struggle, and upon the future for which they strive, yet are withal totally unequipped with social understandings, [4] being committed wholly to the objectives of selfish nationalism of pure science, or of technological efficiency. We wish to produce fewer henchmen, "efficient underlings," [5] people who are really self-seeking followers that patronize the powerful and carry out orders blindly with unthinking loyalty. Finally, we wish to avoid above all producing future

1/ See J. R. Tunis in bibliography.

2/ See R. Lippitt; J. R. P. French; P. Pigors, in bibliography.

3/ See The Robber Barons, in bibliography.

4/ See R. E. Doherty, in bibliography.

5/ See J. R. Messenger, in bibliography.

aristocrats, people who will seek to pass on and thus monopolize power regardless of ability and merit, the kind anxious to enter or create an exclusive ruling class. 1/

How Shall We Develop Good Societal Loaders?--A Summary

Origins of leaders.-- It has been the purpose of this chapter to indicate the foundation of reasoning which brings us to the conclusion that the best method of obtaining the leaders we need is to train them, to bring educational effort directly to bear on the problem,--specifically and especially through secondary education. We have shown that investigation of the means of obtaining leaders refers us back to the basic fact that leaders are either chosen or choose themselves. They do so because of motives acting upon them as well as because of simple difference in ability. Those motives have weakened in recent years in democratic states. This means that we must go back to the origins of leadership. We conclude that leaders are partly born, partly arise to fill needs, are partly the product of socio-economic backgrounds propitious to their growth, and partly develop from experience.

Ability of education to produce leaders.-- To us, it appears that we can do something to obtain leaders better by education than by any other means. For education is a planned environment. Why not plan an educational environment, then, for the development of leadership? Proof substantial has been produced by the researches of Merrill and Eichler that we can

1/ See J. M. Murry, in bibliography.

substantially improve leadership by direct instruction. Furthermore, this has long been done, both unconsciously and purposively. Today, the greatest improvement in this line has been the development of student government organizations. Jones has described past and present programs of secondary education for leadership here and abroad. Follow-up studies have indicated successes and failures. Persistency studies have shown that leaders in secondary school were leaders in life to a substantial degree. Failure to train pupils for and about leadership has resulted both in poor leaders in the high school or poor selection of leaders, 1/ and social waste of ability and educational effort.

Civic education and leadership education.-- We have indicated to what extent, as it appears to us, based on careful analysis of much wide reading, education is second in importance only to economic condition of the bulk of a nation's population as a pillar of democracy. Civic education as conceived by Snedden and Mahoney is the chief force in education for upholding democracy. Leadership education should be added to the program by which it is proposed that democracy shall be upheld and improved. It should be directed particularly to the potential leaders, though available to all in some degree, since all need to know how to follow and to select good leaders.

The desired type of leader.-- Finally, we have defined

1/ See Thesis of L. S. Hays, op. cit.

what kind of leader we need and what kinds we need not at all, or very much less. We need good social and societal leaders, people whose outstanding asset is social intelligence. This ability, we shall maintain, is to an important degree developable, and especially so at the secondary level.

Secondary education best place for additional reasons.-- We must obtain them by improving the contributions of secondary educational effort for four more reasons over and above those summarized. First, at the secondary level social personality is being rapidly formed and crystallized into adult and final forms. Second, the idea is comparatively untried (novel), available, and is consistent with present trends and needs: More personality education and need of better social leaders. Third, present means of discovering potential leaders for special attention are at a practical stage, as we shall show in the next chapter. Fourth, we are unable to practise positive eugenics; we can only employ the application of artificial environment (education) to develop what talent is born. But we can do that and are able to do it better, far better than in the past because of the rapid gains we have made in knowledge of educational psychology and personality.

How to do it.-- It is the purpose of the remainder of this paper to indicate precisely how we should obtain better social and societal leaders, particularly the latter. Here we shall summarize quite briefly what is ahead and tie it up with a few examples from what is being done or counselled.

The first job we have to do is sell the general idea of a secondary school leadership education program to him who may be in a position to block it, refusing to consent to it, to plan for it, or to attempt to carry it on once it is begun. (See Chapters I, V, VI, and XI).

Next, we must find ways and means of discovering potential leaders, beginning our efforts to do so in the first year of junior high and completing our choice by or before the tenth grade. (See Chapter VII).

Next, we must take measures to assure that through the guidance department, potential leaders are given special individual counsel and guidance attention. (See Chapter VIII).

Then, we must work out and institute a course to develop knowledges we regard as essential for potential leaders to have who have reached the eleventh and twelfth grades. (See Chapter IX).

Now, we must see to it that adequate vocational guidance and follow-up is available through the guidance department for potential leaders as a group. (See Chapter X).

These are the tasks. Now, to describe them in detail. Now, to bring together the materials that will most help us to set up the program and make it work successfully.

Over-all advice from prior efforts.-- The first job must be done here and now. We must contact the best advice and guidance (in respect to our total job) which we can obtain from those who have done something along this line or thought in-

cisively into the problem.

Here is room only to list a few of the better sources of such information, and to reach a few broad conclusions, with which we shall close this chapter.

Present conditions.-- Tead says that "The inertia of school systems today is a far more serious threat to democracy than any radical ideas which a few teachers may cherish." 1/ Leonard 2/ points out that crowded conditions make leadership training, or special attention to leaders well nigh hopeless. Garver claims "the bright have never had an adequate opportunity in the American scheme of public education." 3/ Hayes, 4/ after a careful study of the extent to which extra-curricula activities were contributing to the development of leadership in Louisiana high schools concluded that high school students are not by any means being trained adequately to select good leaders. Swain 5/ and Doherty 6/ have been greatly concerned over the failure of technological colleges to prepare future

1/ Ordway Tead, "Administration and Freedom", Survey Graphic (October 1939) XXVIII: p. 619.

2/ Eugenie A. Leonard, "W.P.A., Here We Come!", School and Society (March 30, 1940) L: p. 393.

3/ F. M. Garver, "Curriculum Reorganization According to the Philadelphia School Survey", Elementary School Journal (Dec. 1938) XXXIX p. 258.

4/ L. S. Hayes, op. cit. p. 124.

5/

6/

engineers for leadership. This gives an idea of typical comments by people concerned about leadership training in education as to present conditions.

What must be prevented.-- Any program for developing leaders in high school should be concerned with putting a stop to some practices which discourage leadership development. For example Sowers 1/ thinks public educational techniques tend to "submerge personal values." And Zorbaugh 2/ is bothered about common tendencies of parents and teachers to "throttle" leadership ability. Wert 3/ is anxious to overcome the tendency of college teachers to be too absorbed in an academic field to remember to devote attention to the discovery and development of leadership talent. Messenger 4/ also counsels teachers to stop teaching merely subjects and says "We want leaders of thought and action; we must teach men and women, not subjects." He says we are merely producing "Efficient workers under direction....efficient underlings," instead of leaders. Wert agrees, pointing out that a definite fault of high school teaching is that pupils there are so carefully directed that

1/ R. V. Sowers, "How Far are Personal Values being Submerged in our Democracy?" Education (Feb. 1940) LX, p. 323.

2/ H. W. Zorbaugh, "Are You Throttling a Future President?" American Magazine (December 1945) Vol. 140, p. 46.

3/ Lulu E. Wert, "Student Leadership", NEAA Addresses and Proceedings (1922) p. 783.

4/ James Franklin Messenger, "Educating Efficient Underlings", School and Society (1928) XXVIII, p. 335.

they never learn to think for themselves.

Positive tasks.-- The writers on leadership emphasize, for example, the following tasks that should be undertaken in a leadership program. We must develop by stimulation and education, self-reliance, 1/ ability to think independently, 2/ "drive, (i.e. which is desire to accomplish)," 3/ social insight, 4/ social intelligence, 5/ psychological maturity, 6/ and confidence. 7/ They counsel us to "retrain autocratic leaders," 8/ to develop an "aristocracy of service" 9/ to teach children "to make intelligent judgments on social problems," 10/ "to discover intelligence." 11/ Such are some of the tasks mentioned.

1/ M. N. Chappell, Back to Self-Reliance. McGraw-Hill Book Co. New York, 1939.

2/ L. E. Wert, op. cit., loc. cit.

3/ Harvey C. Lehman and Paul A. Witty, "Ability versus Effective Ability", Psychological Review (Jan. 1928) XXXV pp.67-86.

4/ F. Stuart Chapin, op. cit., p. 133.

5/ F. Stuart Chapin, op. cit., p. 133.

6/ Marshall, "Psychological Maturity as a Basis for Democracy", Mental Hygiene XXVI (April 1942).

7/ Marjorie L. Page, "Are Leaders Born or Made?" Parents Magazine (October 1936) XI: 27f.

8/ J.R.R. French; also Ronald Lipitt. See bibliography.

9/ Frank Pierrepont Graves, "Leadership as a Social Function", Rice Institute Pamphlet (Oct. 1937) XXIV, p. 279.

10/ Charles H. Judd, Education and Social Progress. Harcourt Brace. New York, 1934, p. 268.

11/ Joseph Kinmont Hart, The Discovery of Intelligence, Century. New York, 1924.

Some methods counselled.-- Examples of how they advise us to accomplish these objectives include the following. They say we should socialize education [1] by more effective methods in formal education. Develop honor schools, [2] as in New York City. Develop student forums. [3] Employ guidance. [4] Develop leadership-followership through character education. [5] Give potential leaders more responsibilities. [6] Develop confidence by special training on prestiged jobs. [7] We should make a direct attack on the job of leadership development. [8] Emphasize training in public speaking. [9] We should have more large-group programs in the schools. [10] Devote more teaching effort to personality training. [11] Such is a sampling of the kinds of advice we are offered on how to improve education

1/ Arthur J. Todd, "Social Education and Social Change", Journal of Educational Sociology (Sept. 1935) IX, pp. 23-33.

2/ Sager, "Honor Schools and Training for Leadership", High Points (Oct. 1939) XXI, p. 56.

3/ J. W. Studebaker, P.H. Sheats, Chester S. Williams,(See bib.)

4/ L. S. Hays, op. cit. p. 124.

5/ Ruth Savage, The Development of Leadership-Followership as a Part of Character Education, Master's Thesis, N.Y.U., 1929.

6/ Kenneth R. LaVoy, "Leaders - Born or Made?" School and Society (Dec. 1, 1928) XXVIII, pp. 683-4.

7/ Marjorie L. Page, op. cit. p. 141.

8/ George A. Eichler, op. cit, also William R. Dixon and others. (See bibliography)

9/ George D. Halsey, How to be a Leader, Harper. N.Y., 1938.

10/ F. M. Garver, op. cit., p. 139.

11/ See George F. Swain, Anne B. McCall, G. D. Halsey in biblio.

for leadership in high school. There is almost no limit to the number of recommendations.

Conclusions.-- The best way we can improve in a hurry the quantity and the quality of our social leaders is to go directly at the task through a program for the purpose in secondary schools. This is our conclusion. How to do it? Primarily by using guidance and personality educational techniques.

Many courses are being organized, many experiments tried in behalf of "superior pupils." What is the basis for calling them superior? It is mainly their high I.Q. This high ability to do school work for many educators has become a summum bonum. Life does not value it as highly. Democracy does not value it so highly. Both life and democracy, however, do set great store by the leader. All kinds of efforts are made to find leaders, to select and promote only the best, and to improve techniques of selection of leaders both by the occupational world and the political world. Why should democracy's schools, the people's schools, value it any less? They have done so in the past because of a feeling as Liston has put it "as educators, we have interpreted democracy in education as similarity in the treatment of all students, and as a result, most content and techniques of instruction have been geared to the needs of the "typical" or "average" pupil." But they have also done so because they have believed that leaders are "born" not made. And they have done so because they have not had, until recently, adequate techniques of selecting potential leaders

or adequate knowledge of the nature of personality to train it. Finally, they have done so, because until recently the aim and business of education has been to impart knowledge, not to mould and train personality, social behavior, and attitude.

CHAPTER VII

THE SELECTION OF POTENTIAL LEADERS

Introductory

Purpose of the discussion.-- It is the purpose of the present discussion to educate the reader on the most promising possibilities and lines of effort that may be availed of, to decide upon potential leaders, and to pursuade the reader that such methods as exist are at a sufficiently advanced stage to justify educators in making use of them. We do not wish to become entangled in the very large mass of puzzling and often contradictory conclusions reached by a large number of researchers who have examined various basic aspects of leadership selection. Such researches have produced a sufficient number of general agreements to warrant our proceeding with confidence upon certain courses of action in trying out other promising ones. To indicate such agreements and methods is our immediate intention.

Procedure of the discussion.-- We shall undertake to focus attention first upon the total selection problem, then upon the major aspects, reach broad conclusions, and make suggestions based directly upon such conclusions.

The Problem

It's breakdown.-- Our problem breaks down into two

broad questions. (1) What traits are most important to leadership? (2) How shall we discover and evaluate these traits with the greatest accuracy? Our approach to these questions involves some reversions to some of the cloudier philosophical problems with which we were previously concerned. Throughout consideration of these we must keep in mind that our ultimate objective here is the determination of reliable means and instruments for the discovery of potential leaders among secondary school pupils.

Existence of potential leaders.-- It is fruitless to question whether potential leaders exist. We see them all about us. We know that leaders exist, that others will eventually take their places. Hence, some are individuals who will undoubtedly become leaders in the future. Some are more likely to become leaders than others. They are thought of as "candidates," in other words, oftener than others. In the judgment of the group, some of its members meet more of the requirements for leader positions than do others.

Are all of us potential leaders?-- Granted that we believe in democracy and in equal opportunity, for equal ability, we cannot go along with those super-democrats who imagine that any individual whatsoever is a potential leader. 1/ Such persons wish to avoid criticism on the grounds of discrimination against others. They would be the last to say that we should not discriminate for deserving or worthy persons or

1/ See article by M. L. Langworthy in bibliography.

that we should not discriminate against transgressors of law and order. Yet they presume to tell us that all children must be treated as potential leaders and efforts made to develop their leadership ability. Granted that there may be a spark of ascendancy in every child, is it therefore incumbent upon us to blow upon that spark as hard as we blow upon it in the case of the child having many characteristics that make him outstandingly fitted to gain and grow rapidly into a leader personality as a result of our efforts? The writer thinks not. For leadership is not merely capacity to be ascendant in respect to one other person. 1/ It is not merely ascendancy, but rather it is composed of a group of traits valued by the group at a specific time, traits which the individual has to a greater degree than others in the group and which are recognized by the group to be superior in respect to a given position of leadership.

Composite bases of group selection.-- Groups select their leaders upon four broad bases. First, they want a leader of recognized capacity, that is to say, ability above average to do things the group is doing or to supervise the group in doing them. Second, groups want individuals they like better than most of their members; popularity is based upon likeability within the group as well as without the group. Third, they select individuals whose character they trust, who is

1/ See Henry C. Link, "The Definition of Social Effectiveness and Leadership through Measurement", Educational and Psychological Measurement (Spring 1944) IV, (No. 1).

devoted and loyal to them and to their objectives, persons in whom they have confidence. Finally, the group chooses the individual by the superiority of his knowledge of them and of their problems, as well as of his education in general, believing he will be better able to serve them and represent than others with less knowledge of the kinds they especially value. These four aspects of a candidate for leadership are the fundamentally important ones:-- his capacity, likeability, character, and knowledge. It is these which are commended to a group by those who put up and speak for nominees, or by nominees speaking for themselves.

Possibilities of early selection of potential leaders.-- It is confidently maintained by many thinkers that we are unable to recognize, discover, or select in the high schools individuals most likely to have the traits in their adult years which will be valued by a given group and will persuade it to make him or her their leader. Fundamentally their argument rests on one or both of two foundations. First, they see no possibility that we can locate and assess personality traits. Second, they may believe that even if we can assess them, that personality with it, and relative evaluations of leadership traits will so change in adult groups that our selectees will not often enough turn out to be leaders in life to warrant our giving them special attention as a group of potential leaders in secondary schools.

Persistency of leadership ability.-- The first of the

above viewpoints is a more serious hurdle for us than the second. We shall postpone dealing with it until later in this chapter. But the second is also serious. If we cannot have reasonable assurance that we can, with a reasonable degree of accuracy, select individuals in secondary schools who are destined to become leaders in life in their adult years, our program has much less value. However, even were this the case, we might to a degree justify our effort on the ground that we could achieve by special attention to potential high school leaders a better quality of leadership in the school years for the secondary school population. This could become our immediate objective and would strengthen our argument for special attention for potential leaders on the ground that in many cases, at least, if by no means in all, future leaders would come from the group we selected for special attention, and that their future leadership would be improved by our special attention to them in school.

However, there are several studies which have placed beyond all doubt the conclusion that high school leaders do in fact to an important extent become adult leaders. 1/ They have shown that leadership ability persists beyond high school and beyond college. Genuine leaders, and not mere office holders in school are at least very likely to become leaders in adult years. But while this is true, it is, by the same token, not established that non-leaders in school are not

1/ See studies of persistency of leadership by M.A. McLaughlin, I. J. Levi, and M. C. Courtenay. Bibliography.

often leaders in life. The fact is, leadership capacity in high school is often unrecognized or is under-developed because of any one of many reasons, having to do with the particular environments and opportunities afforded the child in his school years, or because of the development of ability and personality peculiar to him as an individual.

The unrecognized potential leaders.-- It is in this group that our efforts to find and give special attention to potential leaders can bear the most fruit. For, if many who later become leaders go unrecognized in their school years, how much better leaders would they be if found and given appropriate attention at this formative time? And if we fail to recognize potential leaders who do in fact become leaders later, is it not likely that we fail to recognize others who might well have become leaders in life if we had located them at this important period in their lives and exerted ourselves to assist them in developing their strong points and overcoming their weak ones in respect to assumption or achievement of leadership? Here is the major wasteage of potential leadership talent which under present conditions we allow to take place. And we do it in the face of an immense famine of leaders in the democracies both in respect to numbers and quality.

Past Processes of Leadership Selection

The group of five or less.-- In primary groups of five or less, it is as usual for the group automatically to come under the dominance of one of its members, or unconsciously to ac-

cept or choose to follow the leadership of one of the group as it is for a small group to choose or accept a guide for a trip through country unknown to them. If he be not sufficiently superior the group may put another in his place or it may break up. But if circumstances dictate that its safety depends on "sticking together," the group will generally build up and follow the leadership of a single member. The bases of its choice, if it chooses its leader and does not merely come under the dominance of one in the group who takes it over and under his wing, are exactly the same as hold for larger groups. The techniques of choice may vary; the fundamentals motivating choice do not, as long as the face-to-face group (with whose leadership we are dealing in this study) is maintained as such. Leadership of such groups leads on to larger democratically controlled groups. It is to be preferred as a natural stepping-stone to administrative set-ups in a democracy.

The small local group.-- Here selection techniques are more refined. The nature of the group and the preferences of its members determine how the leader is selected. Sometimes, indeed, he is by no means selected. He himself has built the group and remains its leader, or he is a professional leader "adopted" by the group, or employed by it. But if not an individual from without the group, the leader is nominated and elected or accepted as such by the group when he has originally brought them together or built them up from a small number.

The large local group.-- Here the same sort of techniques are used, though more often the group will employ a nominated committee, who make up a slate, with or without alternative nominees. If the slate is without alternative persons for the same post of officership, usually there will be an opportunity to write in a preferred person, and additional nominations to the slate may be made from the floor which, if seconded, are added to the slate.

Larger groups.-- Groups in large cities, states, or national groups usually are organized through sub-groups. Leadership selection processes that culminate in control hierarchies are all initiated in the local group. For this is where we develop leadership skill in the first place. Here leaders are "made." Unless leaders are constantly being found and developed in these local groups, the supply of capable candidates for the larger ones falls off. Head men and/or office-holders take the place of leaders. The demogogues, the domineers, and the self-seekers who are generally second or third-class men get in because of the absence of better types. Their presence discourages leadership-seeking by really worth-while potential leaders.

Essence of the problem of improving selection of leaders.-- Our problem, then, becomes how to develop and motivate potential leaders early in their careers that the supply, quality, and availability of good candidates may be improved. Much too little attention has been devoted to the solution of this

problem. It is one which only educators and other professional local leaders 1/ are in a position to solve. Incidentally, their own problems of improving local organizations and local social activities stand to gain by their efforts as well as the nation as a whole. The techniques of making actual choices of leaders are in need of improvement, but much more than this we need to improve the potential candidates while they may be still susceptible of guidance in the formation of personality, character, and understanding. As for intelligence, the most we as educators can hope to do is to find superior intelligence in the promising personality, and endeavor to familiarize the individual, and train him in using effective methods of thinking, even as we attempt to develop a personality that is well-motivated, well-adjusted, and strong in character traits we regard as of especial importance in leadership situations.

Abilities, Traits, and Knowledges Desirable in Leaders

Difficulty of the subject.-- Probably more attention has been devoted by students of leaders and leadership to determining the traits of leaders, successful ones, than to any other aspect of the subject. Jones, 2/ mentions a study by Gerald L. Zimmerman, (unpublished) which assembled the traits mentioned by writers in fifty magazine articles and books on

1/ See D.L.Sanderson's book on developing local rural leaders, a handbook on rural leadership for use of local professional leaders. (Bibliography).

2/ Arthur Julius Jones, The Principles of Guidance. McGraw-Hill N.Y., 1934. (2nd. Ed.) reporting from Zimmerman, page 365.

leadership. Over 200 different qualities and characteristics were mentioned, only sixty-six being mentioned by more than one writer. Only twelve were mentioned by as many as five authors.

> ....we have the following list of traits with the per cent of authors mentioning each: (1) courage, 30 per cent; (2) intelligence, 28 per cent; (3) vision, 26 per cent; (4) initiative, 16 per cent; (5) insight, 14 per cent; (6) personality, 14 per cent; (7) openmindedness, 14 per cent; (8) knowledge, 12 per cent; (9) self-confidence, 10 per cent; (10) sympathy, 10 per cent; (11) energy, 10 per cent; (12) sincerity, 10 per cent.

Bases of our selection of traits.-- We have selected ten sources 1/ which we believe to be especially reliable on which we base the following analysis of the most essential aspects which we believe are most essential to investigate in finding potential leaders. Tests and estimates of individuals, we believe, should consider and focus attention upon the relative extent to which the individual pupil is above the normal individual of his group in respect to these (sixty-six) aspects. Numerical values should be assigned to each according to the relative agreed-upon importance of each (a process known as "weighting the items") and the pupils ranked in leadership potentiality on this basis.

Outline for a tentative rating sheet.-- As a guide in respect to leadership traits and abilities, then, we submit the following composite outline.

1/ The writers are: Bogardus, Cowley, Cox, Eichler, Hanawalt, Heath, Jones, A. J., Link, Tead, and Zimmerman.

I. Abilities or Capacities or Actualities or Powers

A. Mental

1. Innate, abstract intelligence
2. Scholastic ability
3. Achievement level, scholastically
4. Other achievements, from cumulative record.
5. Social intelligence
6. Decisive judgment ability
7. Ability to impart, sway, persuade, or reason with people
8. Vision, foresight, or imagination
9. Fairness and open-mindedness in judgments
10. Insight, imagination
11. Skill at expression of ideas with clarity

B. Physical

1. Energy, vitality, motility, or motor impulsion.
2. Health
3. Sensory acuity
4. Endurance
5. Voice
6. Appearance, acceptability of
7. Appearance, height, size, weight
8. Strength

C. Spiritual

1. Faith
2. Power to attract,--magnetism
3. Power to inspire imitation by example
4. Sympathy
5. Kindness
6. Love, friendliness, affection

II. Character and personality (inner strength)

1. Ascendance, dominance, or (at times) justifiable aggressiveness
2. Self reliance, self-confidence
3. Persistence, stubbornness, or drive. (perseverence)
4. Courage
5. Initiative and/or originality
6. Honesty, sincerity
7. Individuality
8. Ambition, high aspiration level
9. Dignity

III. Popularity and personality (outer strength)

1. Sociability, social adjustment in and with the group
2. Altruism, attitude and habit of being of service
3. Expressive tendencies, expressing average group feeling
4. Manner and bearing
5. Steadiness of temperament
6. Enthusiasm, interest, drive
7. Self-control
8. Pleasantness, cheerfulness, optimism
9. Extravertion
10. Loyalty, or faithfulness to the group and to others
11. Tact
12. Sense of humor

IV. Knowledge and Experience

1. Of the group and its work
2. Of leadership techniques for the group
3. Of teaching techniques for the group
4. In general,--education
5. Of human nature

Suggested use of this outline.-- This outline can be used as a guide in setting up a program for the discovery of potential leaders. No one pupil will have high ratings in all of these characteristics. Many of them are of much greater importance than others. Some are developed from experience in leading, or are rarely developed until later life. Others, such as ascendance, develop very early. The outline should prove valuable mainly because of its completeness of inventory of critical and outstanding requirements of leaders.

School Techniques Available for Selecting Potential Leaders

Types of techniques.-- All techniques for selecting potential leaders must, in the first place, be divided into sub-

jective and objective ones. Subjective techniques are based upon individual judgment, in the last analysis, no matter how we refine and mass them in order to obtain averages. Objective techniques are those which rest upon individual performance by test, the person tested being correctly rated and diagnosed depending on the validity and reliability of the test instrument and on the accuracy and wisdom of the marker and interpreter of the completed test.

Subjective techniques.-- Since leaders are primarily a group who are at least acceptable to given groups, if not directly chosen by them, it is very probable that subjective methods of finding potential leaders are the better ones. Likeability, 1/ for example, is something hard to objectify, since individuals have different standards. Such differences may be ascribed as much to the previous impacts of, and contacts with the personality of the selector and selectee, as to different valuations of traits. Nevertheless, leadership position achievement and/or continuance in leadership situations will depend more upon such subjective choices averaged-out by majority opinions than on any other factor. Hence the importance of subjective techniques in selecting potential leaders.

Objective techniques.-- The primary values to be secured from use of objective techniques are several. In the first

1/ An attempt to assess likeability has been made by H. F. Heath in his doctor's thesis at Stanford University, 1942, "An Inventory of Likeability".

place, their use obviates having to rest our case for the reliability of choice on methods subject to local group prejudices. Often children or teachers are so impressed by a single weakness of an individual in respect to taking the lead, that they tend to ignore the degree and importance of certain strengths. The weakness may be a temporary thing; it may be only apparent or important in relation to the particular local group represented in the school situation. Such a weakness might in another situation prove to be a strength rather than a weakness. Many individuals become leaders in life who are not at all recognized as such in school. Hence, a balanced, scientific, controlled sampling of personality and ability may be a means of bringing out potential leadership capacity which the school group or individuals may be entirely unaware of, or may grossly under-rate.

On the other hand, the use of objective techniques may indicate weaknesses in those who are highly rated by subjective techniques, weaknesses not readily apparent to the choosers or raters, blinded as they may be by certain strong points. Psychologists call under-rating and over-rating of these kinds the result of the "halo effect." Chosen leaders and those who support them are well aware of this tendency and make great use of it. They know that "nothing succeeds like success, and that nothing fails like failure." Mass opinion develops momentum. Heroes and devils are made quickly. Such accumulation of popularity or unpopularity may develop through the

piling up of social judgments that under intense emotions power of individual reasoning is lost and action becomes a thing dictated by the mob. The objective techniques are our protection against such tendencies, since they serve as a reliable check upon, or criticism of subjective conclusions.

Another point in favor of objective techniques is that we are anxious to discover potential leadership personalities before they may be recognized or recognizable to the group. Also, we wish to find and assist toward development of leadership personality those individuals who have many of the most important attributes of leadership, but who without any special assistance are certainly destined never to be leaders, since they would otherwise not be able to overcome shortages of ability or personality or character in later years when these had become crystallized.

Finally, in respect to the entire school population such tests would provide guidance and teachers with scientific diagnoses and descriptions of personality of all the children in the school, which should be of great assistance in handling problems and bringing out special abilities.

Certain educational values remain to be mentioned. Objective tests would serve to confirm subjective techniques, and giving them, educators could with ease validate such tests in respect to character and personality. Obviously well-qualified and recognized leaders should rate high in leadership; children who are "isolates" or nonentities should usually

rate very low in it; if not, the test is not valid, at least as a measure of leadership. Also, such tests would supply a means of attaching additional numerical values to leadership capacity and by increasing range assist the ranking process in respect to leadership ability.

Selectors.-- Selection of potential leaders may be done by four kinds of selectors,-- pupils, judging their classmates, students, judging themselves, teachers, principals, guidance directors, supervisors or superintendents.

Types of methods.-- Subjective methods of selection include (1) School and school group elections, (2) Rankings by students of their classmates, (3) Ratings of classmates by students, (4) Self-ratings and rankings, (5) Teachers', administrators', or guidance directors' selections, without recourse to objective evidence, (6) the same, with the help of objective evidences.

Objective techniques include (1) Scholastic schievement tests, (2) Intelligence tests measuring ability to do school work, (3) Abstract intelligence tests, (4) Tests of social knowledges, (5) Inventories of personality and character, (6) Tests or questionnaires for traits associated with leadership. Inventories and questionnaires may be also considered subjective methods in that opinion is usually asked for, but are also to a large degree objective, particularly if the object of the instrument is not known to the subject. This is often accomplished by naming the test and building it so that it

appears to measure one trait or set of understandings or opinions when actually it measures another.

Types of evidence.-- In his book, Diagnosing Personality and Conduct, P. M. Symonds lists the following kinds of evidence described there, 1/

Observation
Rating methods
Questionnaire
  to measure adjustment
  to measure interest
  to measure attitude
Tests
  paper and pencil tests of knowledge and judgment
  performance tests
  the free association method
  physiological measures
  interviewing
  psychoanalysis
  external signs
  measures of the environment

These types of evidence, Symonds says, can be distinguished "as descriptions of the environment, descriptions of reactions, and descriptions of the results of conduct."2/ The first has been applied in studies of the backgrounds of school leaders. 3/ The results are interesting but not especially valuable in finding leaders, many of whom have been shown to come from types of environment which may be regarded as being adverse to development of leadership. The same has been found true of children having high intelligence quotients. Such

1/ P. M. Symonds, The Century Co. 1931, p. 12.

2/ Op. cit., p. 161, loc. cit.

3/ Some of such studies are authored, for example, by W.H.Reals, F. N. Freeman, et. al., W. James, S.S. Visher, H. S. Person, L. H. Stott, F. M. Blair, J. Schneider, J.R. Shannon. See bibl.

results as have been obtained are chiefly valuable as a guide to what type of environment it is desirable that children should have at home, and as a hint as to the most desirable environment they will flourish in at school and of the methods that should be adopted in teaching. They have little value in finding potential leaders.

Even less fruitful have been studies of the results of conduct. 1/ Symonds says, "Conduct is supposed to leave its imprint in various physical characteristics such as facial expression, handwriting, posture, and other external signs, but careful experimentation has not revealed these relationships." 2/

Of diagnosing conduct by securing descriptions of reactions directly, Symonds points out, "The very conduct itself may be on the one hand directly described either by observation and tests, or through judgment by rating methods; or on the other hand it may be obtained in directly, either through interviews with the individual concerned or with those acquainted with him, or through the answers to questionnaires." 3/

It is with these techniques alone that we are concerned herein.

The Subjective Techniques

School and school-group elections.-- Here is the method

1/ Symonds, op. cit., p. 13.

2/ Idem.

3/ Symonds, op. cit., p. 13.

by which the school as a democracy selects its actual leaders. Just as in adult life, mistakes are made in choosing leaders. Often, children appear willfully to choose individuals of whose actual capacities for leadership teachers and administrators take a dim view. But teachers and educators often confuse educational objectives and corresponding values with leadership and social values. Pupils do not do so as readily, even though greatly influenced by educators. Neither, be it said, do adults, in choosing leaders. Just as pupils do, they look primarily for the individual with appropriate capacities, likeability, character, and knowledge. Even as it is, it is perhaps to be deplored that in so many cases pupils' judgments and resulting choice of classmates for their leaders are often so greatly swayed by the high valuation placed by educators on capacity to do school work. Though school leaders are apt to be of the group who do creditable school work, in adult life, certainly, this standard is by no means rigidly held. Many a poor scholar turns out to be a leader in our society.

Rankings.-- Probably as good a subjective technique as any, (perhaps the best), is the technique of ranking. Pupils are asked to rank their classmates in leadership ability. Opinions naturally differ as to the best leader, and if not the best, great difference of opinion generally develops in making a second choice, and a third choice. By allowing three points for first choices, two for second, and one for third, a large number of pupils may be ranked in leadership, often

the top fifth of a group. [1] In using this technique, it is always best to indicate a definite leadership position.

A more valuable and more complex method is to have pupils rank their classmates in all the various traits associated with leadership. This can be done with success only if the class is small and pupils have had long familiarity with each other. By a suitable weighting of the importance of various traits, it is then possible to obtain numerical values representing the relative leadership capacity of each of the pupils ranked.

The weakness of the usual ranking techniques is that many pupils are not ranked at all, and so are unrepresented. Among these may be pupils whose personalities might have many values, taken with their abilities, which if encouraged, and shortages ascertained and remedied might make them into leaders in the future. We need to have a composite picture of the capacities and traits of every pupil.

Ratings by pupils.-- Many thinkers and practitioners in the educational or personnel field are agreed that techniques involving ratings by pupils of those classmates whom they know best, furnish the best means of reaching valid measurements of many aspects of personality where in any case subjective conclusions and opinions by other people will eventaully largely determine the individual's success and achieved status.

This technique is being in any case adopted quite generally.

1/ This method was well worked out by Merrill, and has been used by several investigators quickly to find pupil-recognized leaders.

It has undeniable merits. It has flexibility. It is a fair means of subjective measurement. By weighting the values of the various leadership traits in proportion to their relative importance, a complete set of numerical values representing leadership capacities can be obtained which is also useful in that profiles of each pupil's average ratings in the traits may be constructed and used in many connections by school authorities and others given access to the files or supplied with information.

Several inadequacies exist, however, in the technique. Often, certain pupils are not well-known or classmates are indisposed to rate them. The "halo effect" will tend to operate upon and distort the trait ratings by the pupils who rate popular leaders or friends. It will equally tend to depreciate unduly ratings of pupils having very apparent or annoying weaknesses. While anonymity can be mostly achieved, having pupils rate each other may often cause trouble unless the teacher administering the process is well-qualified and succeeds in preparing the pupils adequately in respect to knowledge and proper attitude to make results good and effects on the pupils equally so.

Self-rating methods.-- Of all rating efforts employed with pupils, it may be said that it is better not to attempt them unless the pupils in each case are willing, even anxious to be rated, and curious to know their average ratings. One way to educate a person about himself in a highly valuable way is

to have him rate himself and then compare his own rating with the averaged ratings of himself by others among his compeers. This can be a highly revealing process, one which, in the writer's opinion, should not be denied to any child. Socrates opined that above all we must know ourselves. More can be done to remedy personality failings at high school age than at any other time in life after that. Pupils should be given the opportunity to know themselves through other's eyes and to correct their own images of themselves therefrom. Naturally, it must be done only carefully and with reasonably mature pupils, probably only from the 11th. through the college grades.

Nothing, in the writer's opinion, could be more helpful both to advisor and advised in a vocational guidance interview than study and discussion of all or most of the objective test and subjective estimate conclusions reached about a pupil. But all such values depend primarily upon the tact, wisdom, and experience of the advisor. Nothing is more important to a person than his self-respect, and nothing is so easily injured as his attitude toward himself. Those who do not exert extraordinary care when stepping into the area between the picture the adolescent has formed of himself and the adolescent himself can do great, well-nigh irreparable damage. This point cannot be too strongly stressed. Seeing ourselves as others see us is of immense value, but rude shocks must be carefully avoided, particularly with complex, disturbed, or especially sensitive personalities. In adolescence, personal-

ity is especially susceptible of, ever poised for such shocks.

Educators' selections.-- If for no other reason than to check upon their own tendencies to regard as leaders children who are actually excellent scholars rather than leaders in major respects, educators should make selections of leaders and potential leaders. These choices should be made before ratings are made. They should only be used to educate educators, teachers and others. But such simple lists of preferences by educators are not enough. Teachers and administrators of guidance or other administrators should also be charged with making careful studies of the cumulative records of pupils and recorded observations of individual pupils or functioning groups of them. These studies should be made with a single objective, namely, to obtain a series of numerical values to be attached to the name of each pupil in a grade with sufficient spread to make possible a complete ranking of pupils by leadership aptitude for the entire grade. With such a list the guidance department could then decide what percentage of the class should be regarded as potential leaders, and consider the job of selecting them accomplished.

The Objective Techniques

Scholastic achievement tests.-- Enough has been already said depreciative of the academic ability criterions for selecting potential leaders to imply that little or no importance should be attached to them. Such is not the conclusion of the writer. As previously stated, one of the four basic elements

of usual choice for leadership is knowledge, whether from experience, special training, or general education. It goes without saying that a record of successful learning at school should certainly be regarded as a valid indicator of potential leadership capacity. Success at learning should be given due weight, by no means small, in considering leadership potentialities.

Scholastic aptitude tests, or intelligence tests of ability to do school work.-- Such "I.Q." tests must continue to be a main reliance of educators in measuring intellectual abilities. The writer wishes to point out that they will probably be of prime value to the seeker of potential leaders in pointing to lack of drive or other causes for failure to bring school achievement into line with ability to do school work. On the other hand, good motivation and/or good character may be indicated where school achievement exceeds normal expectation of achievement as indicated by scholastic ability determinators. Often problems of correct interpretation may be worked out with very good accuracy by showing the child the figures and explaining their immediate meaning, asking him to interpret them. Such an interview can mean much to the advisor trained to recognize leadership traits.

Abstract intelligence tests.-- Several non-verbal tests designed to measure various types of abstract intelligence have been devised. The one showing greatest possibilities, in the judgment of this student, is that which has been devised

by Pintner. [1] No one is quite sure as yet what it measures, though correlations of results with ordinary I.Q. tests results are fairly high. Hence, it is presumed that it measures, at least to some extent, scholastic aptitude. That is naturally to be expected. What it aditionally measures is the question. What is hoped is that it is a more accurate measure of general, abstract mental abilities. Its validation is proving to be a difficult problem. While the old I.Q. tests were frankly validated by averages of school achievement, incidentally disqualifying them in their early claims to be measures of innate intelligence, there are few clues as to means of validating these tests. Their construction is, however, apparently indicating that we are making real progress toward formulating clear-cut concepts of the various overlapping abilities which must, taken together, add up to general intellectual capacity. We are no longer forced into an academic mold of thought when we seek to build intelligence tests. We are getting our understandings of the nature of kinds of intelligence clarified and disentangled from each other and from knowledge and mental disciplines. This alone is a tremendous stride.

Tests of social knowledges.-- [2] There are several good tests of knowledge of good behavior and approved social procedures and other information desirable for a leader to be equipped with. Sometimes, they are called tests of "social

1/ Pintner, A Non-verbal Test of Abstract Intelligence.

2/ Moss, Social Intelligence Test, 1930; Vineland Social Maturity Scale, 1936, by Doll.

intelligence." Some of them, however, are not tests of intelligence by the widest stretch of the imagination, but rather of subject matter regarding desirable behavior or social understandings. That potential leaders should be equipped with them is obviously desirable. If they are not so equipped, it is certainly essential that education should equip them.

Inventories of personality and character.-- As previously mentioned, unmasked questionnaires and inventories of character probably should be considered as subjective measures. Nevertheless, many of these are so well constructed and have been so reliably validated that they are certain to be found quite reliable as indicators of possession of leadership traits of several kinds. Two of the most valuable are the Link "P.Q." Test so-called 1/ and the Bernreuter Personality Inventory. 2/

But the masked tests and questionnaires are more accurate measures, and the tests (performance tests) which will be developed, and are being at present experimented with, will eventually prove to be much more reliable indicators of, or measurments of leadership potentialities.

Leadership tests and questionnaires.-- If we wish to discover whether a person can do something or not, we try them out. Accordingly, the only genuinely adequate test of ability to lead is a try-out in a leadership situation. But a performance test of this kind is not easy to arrange. Neither is it

1/ Link Personality Quotient Test (1935).

2/ The Personality Inventory by Robert J. Bernreuter, Stamford University Press, Stamford, California, 1935.

especially desirable at the stage we are at. Here, we wish to learn the extent to which it is likely that a pupil has the qualities primarily inherent and partly or primarily developed which make him potential leader material. If the primary innate traits required for leadership are there; if the traits achieved by environment and requisite in leaders are well-started; if there are relatively few serious lacks or weaknesses to be found, we may have a potential leader.

Specific, Recommended Methods

The goal.-- Our primary goal is to produce from pupils who had leadership aptitudes and qualities when we first went to work for and with them, pupils whom we shall have greatly improved and strengthened in the qualities and knowledges particularly valuable to social leaders by our program. We wish to find innate capacity, physical and mental, evidence of a good foundation for building strong character. We shall be greatly assisted if we also find a degree of ability to be liked, and some knowledges and/or experiences valuable to leadership success. We seek, specifically, evidence of superior physical and mental capacity, plus evidence of superior achievement proving the use and effectiveness of these capacities. We seek evidence of strong character. We wish to find, but will, in cases where the above two are sufficiently superior, endeavor to develop likeability and appropriate leadership knowledges.

Capacity tests.-- By this term we refer to tests of men-

tal and physical ability. Choice of these depends on the age of the pupils to be tested. As the Stanford-Binet tests are best known, we recommend them for straight I.Q., or otherwise the less expensive Otis paper and pencil test. [1] Other tests, such as the Nenmon-Nelson Test of Scholastic Aptitude are also reliable, and have good norms and validation established.

For physical ability, the P.F.I. Test of Physical Capacity [2] is available. What we are anxious to judge, however, is not primarily physical fitness, but relative motility and vitality or tendency to be energetic. Tests for this have been worked out, but are not suitable for mass administration. Hence, we must rely here upon subjective estimates from observation. In the absence of this, we may estimate energy from the cumulative record by the number of physically wearing activities the pupil has been active in, plus his general athletic record and hobbies.

Capacities other than strictly mental or physical can well be measured but are not of prime necessity for discovering potential leaders.

Tests of abstract intelligence, such as the new Pintner test should be experimented with, but as yet are in the experimental stage only.

Achievement tests in the various subjects and at the

1/ Arthur S. Otis, Otis Self-Administering Tests of Mental Ability, World Book Company, Yonkers-on-Hudson, N.Y., 1933.

2/ Frederick Rand Rogers, Physical Capacity Tests, A. S. Barnes Co., 1931.

various grade levels should be administered. Since these are at present offered by most schools, we shall devote no more space to them.

Character and personality measures.-- There are just four good inventories of personality:- (1) The Link Personality Quotient Test, 1/ which is the only one so far validated nationally as a measure of leadership potentiality; 2/ (2) Bernreuter Personality Scale (or Inventory) 3/; The Allport A-S Scale 4/; (5) and the Vineland Social Maturity Scale, 5/ by Doll.

Likeability measure.-- Observation and the record of the pupil in obtaining offices will probably serve better than anything else, along with rankings and ratings, to determine this for us. However, as stated above, by H. F. Heath, in an analysis of likeability, he breaks down "likeability" into three main factors. "Factor S, is the general sociability of the good mixer who thoroughly enjoys mingling with people, entertaining them in his home, and conversing with them. Factor A is the altruistic type of leadership which in thought-

1/ Op. cit. p. 170.

2/ Op. cit. p. 170.

3/ Op. cit. p. 170.

4/ The A-S Reaction Study: A Scale for Measuring Ascendance-Submission in Personality. Houghton Mifflin Company, Boston, 1928. p. 15 by G. W. and F. H. Allport.

5/ Op. cit. p. 169.

ful, friendly ways accepts responsibilities for trying to meet the needs of people, both as individuals and as groups. Factor E indicates expressive tendencies and skills which enable the possessor to take the lead in giving expression to the emotions and thinking of others with whom he associates." 1/ To work these factors out he applied factor analysis to results obtained by administering such tests of personality as the Allport-Vernon Study of values. He studied 19 groups of high school students according to college objectives. He says his instrument which he calls the "Heath Personality Reactionaire" "is especially planned for use in personality counselling in high school and college," 2/ and asserts it is available for use by others.

Other aspects of character are probably better estimated by subjective means already discussed, by ratings and self-ratings, by examination of records, observations, and such.

Social and leadership knowledge.-- Link has made the point that "Social intelligence is not synonomous with social effectiveness, 3/ that is to say, measures of social behavior do not give correlations with measures of intelligence or academic achievement." He says that the Moss Social Intelligence Test 4/ correlates not with the other personality tests, such

1/ Op. cit. p. 157.

2/ Op. cit. p. 157.

3/ H. C. Link, "The Definition of social effectiveness and leadership through measurement", Educational and Psychological Measurement, IV, (Spring 1944) p. 57f.

4/ F.A.Moss, T.Hunt, and T.Ourwake, Social Intelligence Test, Wash. D.C. Center for Psych. Service, Geo. Washington Univ. 1930.

as those mentioned above, which correlate with each other to a degree, but rather it correlates with the I.Q. and A.Q. tests. It "emphasizes a knowledge of social behavior, whereas the emphasis in the Allport, Vineland, and Link tests is upon specific social habits. The former stresses theory and judgment, the latter practice." Link gives us, then, a highly revealing definition of what he calls social effectiveness, which it is the purpose, he claims, he claims, of most personality scales to measure. He says, "Social effectiveness consists of a peculiar collection of habits and skills, the common denominator of which is their practical effect on other people." We see that leadership and social effectiveness are extremely close according to this definition.

It is not surprising that we find, then, Link pointing out that the Link Personality Quotient Test, which he developed to indicate social effectiveness, is "the only test the validity of which has been established in terms of leadership." 1/ It is interesting to note that Link's concept of personality is as follows, "Personality is measured by the extent to which the individual has acquired habits and skills which interest and serve other people." 2/ Also he says, "Leadership is a manifestation of social effectiveness." 3/

1/ Idem., p. 57.

2/ Op. cit., p. 174, loc. cit.

3/ Id.

Nevertheless, the knowledges which are measures by Moss, we believe are essential for leaders to have; and we believe that this kind of intelligence or familiarity will be apt to markedly characterize those had by a potential leader who has already served as a leader or intelligently observed leadership of his classmates. If it does not, as shown by the test, and yet other factors are high, such pupils should be considered potential leaders and such knowledges be inculcated in the school process and especially through the leadership guidance program.

A Leadership Questionnaire

Its source.-- A group of researchers [1] have made a series of studies of "Leadership as related to the Bernreuter personality measures." In the fourth and final article based on these studies they have made an item analysis of responses of adult leaders and non-leaders in order to determine which items best differentiated leaders from non-leaders. These questions, they point out, could form the basis of a test for potential leaders.

The questions.-- In order of their validity in differentiating these questions are as follows: [2]

36. Have you ever solicited funds for a cause in which you were interested? (Yes No Doubtful)
111. Have you been the recognized leader (president, etc.)

1/ See Series of four articles by N.G.Hanawalt, H.M.Richardson, and R.J.Hamilton in Bibliography.

2/ N.G.Hanawalt and H.M.Richardson, "Leadership as related to the Bernreuter personality measures:IV an item analysis of responses of adult leaders and non-leaders", Journal of Applied Psychology XXVIII (Oct. 1944) pp. 408-9.

in a group in the last five years?

27. Do your interests change rapidly?

91. Does your mind often wander so badly that you lose track of what you are doing?

35. Would you dislike any work which might take you into isolation for a few years such as forest ranging, etc?

40. Have you ever organized any clubs or teams, or other groups on your own initiative?

78. When you are in low spirits, do you try to find someone to cheer you up?

69. Do you often find that you cannot make up your mind until the time for action has passed?

54. Do you often feel lonesome when you are with other people?

88. If you came late to a meeting, would you rather stand than take a front seat?

56. Are you careful not to say things to hurt other people's feelings?

96. At a reception or a tea do you feel reluctant to meet the most important person present?

98. Do you prefer a play to a dance?

8. Do you often feel just miserable?

46. Do jeers humiliate you even when you know you are right?

74. Do you ever upbraid a workman who fails to have his work done on time?

121. Do you like to be with people a great deal?

49. Do you often experience periods of loneliness?

80. Do you lack self-confidence?

11. Do you try to get your own way even if you have to fight for it?

79. Can you usually understand a problem better by studying it out alone than by discussing it with others?

58. Do you ever complain to the waiter when you are served inferior or poorly prepared food?

95. Would you "have it out" with a person who spread untrue rumors about you?

18. Are you touchy on various subjects?

87. Do you take responsibility for introducing people at a party?

48. Does it bother you to have people watch you at work even when you do it well?

73. Does some particularly useless thought keep coming into your mind to bother you?

94. Do you ever take the lead to enliven a dull party?

CHAPTER VIII

THE COUNSELING OF POTENTIAL LEADERS

Introductory

Purpose of the discussion.-- We are here concerned with the problem of determining how we may best give special attention to selected, potential leaders throughout their secondary school career by means of counseling techniques. We shall not be interested at this point in the vocational aspect of guidance nor in any form of group education and guidance of leadership. There is little material available to help us. We must be largely on our own.

Procedure of the discussion.-- We shall consider in turn (1) the kind of counselor who should be assigned to advise and study potential leaders; (2) what general knowledge such a counselor should possess; (3) what kinds of information this counselor of potential leaders should seek about him; (4) the main tasks of the counselor in respect to the work with potential leaders and good methods of performing them. We shall finally consider (5) some problems typically encountered in counseling potential leaders and suggest desirable solutions.

The Ideal Counselor of Potential Leaders

Ability.-- The counselor who is given charge of potential leaders must, above all, have sufficient intelligence

both of the abstract or scholastic variety and of the social type to command respect from superior children. The counselor's capacity for achievement and his record of achievements must be very much above average in a given faculty. His social wisdom must also be apparent that his judgments may be well received. The usual potential leader will be more discriminating in his reaction to guidance and his preferences in an advisor. He will be more likely to sense whether or not the advisor has leadership capacity and can serve as a good model.

Character.-- The counselor of potential leaders must deal with the most self-confident and able children. He must not be a "timid soul". His personal life and career must demonstrate beyond question a strong character in many less obvious respects. He must have a strong will, be self-reliant, show marked ability to cooperate with the other members of the faculty, accept and meet responsibilities successfully, and be thoroughly honest.

Personality.-- The leadership counselor must be likeable without being weak. Strength and depth of influence is to be preferred to popularity. He must be sympathetic but not permit his sympathy to be taken advantage of. He must be interested in, and ambitious for the individuals who have been selected as potential leaders without being criticized for favoritism. He must be successfully persuasive and tactful.

General Knowledge the Counselor Should Possess

Concerning characteristics of superior pupils.-- Most potential leaders are among or are close to, the school group who have been in recent years described as "superior pupils." Several studies have been made of the characteristics such pupils possess. Scientifically derived generalizations, then, in this field constitute reliable guides to counselors who are to devote their attentions to potential leaders. Bentley's book 1/ is only one of many, 2/ but probably one of the most complete on the subject. The writer feels strongly that there are children who are sufficiently beyond the remainder of their classmates in intelligence that they may not be potential social leaders at all. These highly-endowed individuals, he is convinced, often require an entirely different handling educationally from that which we are describing. It might even be an injustice to a future cultural leader on the genius level of intelligence to push him in the direction of social leadership. Nevertheless, we wish a more intelligent social leadership in this country. We must know all we can concerning children who are of superior intelligence if we are to guide them wisely and effectively. If we are to increase substantially the quantity and improve the quality of social leaders, we must find ways of increasing the number of indi-

1/ John Edward Bentley, Superior Children. W.W.Norton & Co. N.Y.

2/ See under "Superior and Gifted Children" in classified bibliography.

viduals who are able, prepared, and disposed to lead. We must improve the output of leaders from the ranks of the more intelligent.

About leaders and leadership.-- No counselor assigned to a group of potential leaders should be minus a strong educational backgrounding in leaders and leadership. While it is of course desirable that the leadership course teacher and the counselor of boys or of girls be the same, nevertheless, the restricted available personnel in the small high school, and the desirability of having one potential leader counselor of each sex will require that one or both of the counselors secure as rapidly as possible, as or before the program goes into effect, a good, broad education on the subject through a well-planned course of reading. 1/

Such a course of reading may be better directed if done under a professor in a summer session course of Social Psychology, where the teacher may emphasize in her reading the subject of leadership. The material has been gathered together and adequate bibliographies prepared on most aspects. In one which is most important to high school counselors, it has not until now been adequately collated. This is in reference to the characteristics of high school leaders and potential leaders. 2/ Many college theses have been written and several

1/ As a starter this course should include the three excellent texts of Ordway Tead, Emory Bogardus, and Paul Pigors. (See Bibliographical Essay, Appendix A, and Classified Bibliography.

2/ See in classified bibliography on "Characteristics of High School Leaders."

studies have been published in educational journals on this important subject, but no one has as yet summarized the findings in them, to our knowledge. On potential leaders' characteristics, at the adolescent level, nothing has been done of importance, unless we wrongly assume that all potential leaders are recognizable either as superior pupils or as chosen leaders in school. This does not appear to be a conclusion born out by follow-up studies. Some eventual social leaders were not chosen as leaders in high school, were not scholastically superior, had intelligence quotients only slightly above normal, and showed no exceptional talents in their youth. An excellent reference, by an authority on boy leaders is the recent book of Ernest De Alton Partridge, "The Social Psychology of Adolescence." 1/ It goes without saying that any counselor of youth should be well-grounded in the psychology and problems of adolescents. 2/

Information on Potential Leaders

About abilities and achievements.-- The counselor of potential leaders should find out what the ability levels of each of the potential leaders are. He should know their intelligence quotients, their special talents, the record of their scholastic achievements, their physical abilities and athletic achievements, and other achievements. Their social

1/ Published by Prentice-Hall, Inc. New York, 1938.

2/ See in Appendix B, (Classified Bibliography), "Psychology of Adolescence."

intelligence should be measured. 1/

The personalities of potential leaders.-- Counselors should, by every available means, become conversant with and record information about, and conclusions reached, together with ratings made, on each potential leader's personality.

Character.-- The moral characteristics, strengths and weaknesses of each individual in the group is another field of investigation which the counselor must explore by every reliable means. 2/

The backgrounds of potential leaders.-- Although not usually considered practicable as a service for the total high school population, it is not only justifiable but essential that counselors obtain information by direct or indirect investigation on homes of potential leaders. They will need such information in order to form reliable judgments, and understandings. This information may be supplemented by interviews and direct questionnaires.

The problems of potential leaders.-- Once friendly contacts have been established and confidence gained, it will not be difficult for counselors of potential leaders, who are usually expressive and forthright, to become familiar with the main personal problems of each selectee. Ways may be found by the tactful counselor to learn as he assists the pupil with even small difficulties. Much can often be learned by

1/ See on measurements of social intelligence in Chapter VII and in bibliography.

2/ See character and personality measurements, appendix B.

this simple and natural method of approach.

The Tasks and Methods of the Counselor

Self-training and educational preparation.-- This is an essential duty, much of which must precede counselor service. It has been indicated above in describing what must be known.

Measurement, scoring and interpretation of test results and ratings.-- This is a task which in large high schools may be mainly the responsibility of teachers, or of the guidance or measurement department. However, interpretations of measurements and their immediate use in the case of counseling potential leaders must be the duty of the leadership counselor.

Record research.-- As previously indicated, the counselor must, as one of his most essential duties, thoroughly examine and, for his own purposes, summarize significant findings and information from the existing cumulative records of the each child who is a selectee. Much criticism is frequently directed at teachers and administrators for failure to use such records to their full advantage. Often, they are not well kept up. More frequent and intelligent use of them would encourage teachers and personnel to keep them up-to-date, complete, accurate, and to make them more meaningful and useful.

Interviewing.-- One of the mistakes often made by young counselors is to schedule and require personal interviews. Interviews should be encouraged in every manner. Sometimes they may be obtained by harmless stratagems and subterfuges. But they are at their best and most valuable when pupils seek

them. Pupils will seek them if confidence and friendship have developed. This achieved, they may be motivated in many ways. Nothing leads quicker to interviews than friendly, sincere interest by a well-informed and observant counselor. Often a pupil may be brought to an interview when he desires to learn the results and the counselor's interpretation of measurements and ratings. Many pupils are anxious to volunteer to take tests when the information derived will have no value to other than themselves and the counselor and will not be made known specifically to other members of the faculty or their classmates.

Observing.-- The counselor should set an example to other members of the faculty in being constantly alert and well employing opportunities for observation of pupils, especially in situations which are significant in respect to the personality of a given pupil. Thus, he will faithfully and accurately make anecdotal entries on the cumulative record of any child, on occasions which seem to justify it. In this connection, positive rather than negative or neutral characterizations must be emphasized. In the long run they will prove to have more value than negative ones.

Visiting homes.-- If any pupils in the school deserve to have home conditions well understood more than the potential leaders, the need is not much greater nor the possible values to be derived from such investigation more pregnant of potentialities. Furthermore, in many cases this is the one vital

link which may make all the difference between success and failure in establishing confidence between a potential leader and the counselor. No counselor, though, should attempt to visit every home of the group of potential leaders assigned to him. Oftentimes, information sufficiently adequate can be obtained in other ways, such as interviews with parents at the high school, both prearranged ones or at occasional opportunities. The important thing is that the counselor should not neglect to record impressions and information on parents and home conditions obtained at such visits or interviews. Sometimes seemingly unimportant or routine details may later assist in developing much insight and lead to good and practicable solutions of problems.

Some Typical Problems of Leadership Development in Potential Leaders

Purpose of this discussion.-- We wish here to indicate some of the leadership development problems which counselors may encounter who have assembled sufficient information to warrant their seeking personality guidance interviews and making counseling efforts to help the pupil in question. The importance of having this information from many sources, some of them quite objective if possible, cannot be too highly stressed. Such information or evidence should consistently indicate the same difficulty or difficulties. No direct advice should be given at the first interview, which should be for the purpose of exploring and confirming the counselor's

information, not for acting upon it. After this interview, the counselor should write out conclusions and intentions for further investigation, if any. If the counselor is confirmed in judgment that some helpful advice or solution should be offered in another interview, this should then follow, or other courses of action taken. No advice or suggestions for personal improvement or courses of action to be taken should be offered in the first (sought) interview. The child, however, should not leave the interview without a clearer self understanding resulting from the interview, nor should he have any vague foreboding feeling that he is under a cloud in the counselor's mind. He should have been helped to think about himself more clearly and accurately.

First typical problem: the potential leader who is over-active in social activities.-- John is popular. He is "into everything." He likes social activities and has real ability to deal with others effectively even as he retains their friendship. But his grades are down. The teachers compl ain he is not doing himself justice in scholastic achievement. His English is weak; his powers of expression are vigorous but what he says often lacks knowledge and polish. He is perhaps over-confident in himself, believing that he can put off doing well in studies until later successfully. He fails to realize the importance of hard study and good study methods if good results are to be expected. More hours and effort on studies appears to be indicated as the remedy. He will be a

better leader eventually if he is persuaded to put more energy into improving his communicative skills, thinking techniques, and knowledge at this time of his life. He must be persuaded to give up for now some of his more time-consuming and less valuable social activities and officerships and use the time and energy on school work.

Second typical problem: the good student who is under-active socially.-- Mary's grades are her pride and deepest concern. Her teachers call her an excellent scholar and stop right there. Her intelligence quotient is 132. She is "college material" and no doubt of it. But her friends call her a "grind." She is a wall-flower at dances and would rather be reading a good classical novel than trying to be popular with her classmates. She almost abominates extra-curricular activities. She thinks it is hopeless to expect she can really be liked. So she never makes much of an attempt. She doesn't know how to go about it, anyway. Her father is an English teacher and they are great friends. Mary can express herself well and forcefully. She reads considerably above her school grade level. She is interested in social problems and thinks she would like to be a social worker or a journalist. She could be, except--. Mary doesn't know the importance of knowing how to get along with, and become valuable and important to other people. She has many of the abilities good social leaders must have. She can and should, in view of these, attempt to become more extraversive. She needs to have this

personality weakness and its seriousness pointed out to her. She needs to know things she can do. She needs to be urged to do them. Mary can probably develop these characteristics if she can be persuaded to try. She can be a good social leader if she is helped now, in the right way. She can be more than an academic educational asset to the school and to society.

Third typical problem: the over-ascendant, or too aggressive potential leader.-- William is a "go-getter," but he "hits you like a ton of bricks." You may give in to him, but you cannot like him. He walks over you, and it hurts. He "tangles" with everyone. He vacillates in his own mind between failing to understand why he is disliked, ignoring it, or adopting an "I should worry" attitude. "Bill" is intolerant of "stupidity," as he sees it, in others. He makes no bones about telling them and others that they don't know what they are doing. He dominates groups he is in until they cannot stand him and avoid him. He has some staunch friends who overlook his quarrel-someness for his good points. He is energetic, enthusiastic, and industrious. He would accomplish more with others if he could get along better with them. He needs to have it quietly and determinedly rubbed in on him that others have rights to be heard, to differ from him, to have their plans adopted and to expect and receive his cooperation even if they may not seem wise to him. Bill has more leadership strengths than weaknesses. But this weakness will keep him from many desirable leadership situations that he would

like to enter and to succeed in. Bill needs our help if this is to be prevented and a highly-useful capacity to lead others directly is to be salvaged for society and for Bill's own better future.

Fourth typical problem: Neurotic or temperamental potential leader.-- Doris has always been an "enfant terrible." She is intelligent, energetic, has a strong will although it is not strong in self-control under emotionally disturbing conditions. She can be amusing, attracts friends only to lose them after an emotional outburst. She has many interests, many of them valuably mature and social. She has over-strong preferences about people and things. She "hates" and "adores" easily. Doris' background is a broken home with an adoring mother with whom she now and again quarrels furiously. Her mother has passed on to her the habits of being temperamental which were in all probability partly responsible for her divorce. Doris has strong ambitions she and her mother have worked out together. They consist of a feasible plan for a conservatory education and a career in music. Though the mother's influence is strong, Doris appears to be the more dominant of the two, quarrels often resulting from this condition.

We cannot provide Doris with a new background until she leaves home. We can, however, help her to understand the extent to which the lack of self-control impedes the achievement of goals she has set. At present she leads the school

orchestra with erratic brilliance. She must be persuaded that her projected career in school music will quickly fail unless she develops a capacity for inhibiting both her emotional lows and highs, and studies the acquiring of serenity and poise under irritating circumstances inwardly and outwardly affecting her. If we can lead her to sincerely see it our way and take up concrete things to do, we shall be setting her on the path to successful leadership some day.

Fifth typical problem: The snobbish, undemocratic, or too critical potential leader.-- Elizabeth's family is the wealthiest in town. Her mother, who is a power in local society, has not yet forgiven her self-made banker husband for his democratic stand against sending Elizabeth to private school, when they could have well afforded it. Apparently, John Golden preferred that Elizabeth make her way with the help of good friendships established in the town he loves, in its high school, rather than among a wealthy coterie of private school pupils assembled from many localities. Elizabeth has many of his qualities as a leader. She has initiative, dogged persistence, and is ascendent without being agressive. Her ascendancy, unfortunately, often takes the form of snobbishness. She has a small group of friends. But this is just the difficulty; the group is too small. It does not include a good cross-section of all the better, more able elements in the school. It is restricted by the social barriers which her mother is putting up for her, with her willing acquiescence.

At present, her only future as a leader is in the capacity of society leader. She is personable, dresses tastefully, and could easily slip into that role. Nevertheless, she has, clearly, too good a mind to waste it in this way. She has been developing real power as a debator, for example, and has functioned very valuably as an efficient and imaginative class and committee officer.

What to do? Elizabeth needs assistance; but her family is a power and we must protect ourselves. First, we must become good friends with Elizabeth and her parents, particularly with her mother. When we have talked with Elizabeth on the disadvantages of her over-critical attitude and disdainful actions in social gatherings at school and in her classes, convinced her of their reality and seriousness, and painted the interesting future which we believe is hers to command, we can then begin to arouse her interest and sincere cooperation in changing her outlook about other people.

A personal talk in a social visit with her mother must then be had. We shall mildly and diplomatically point out the useful and important future which we see for Elizabeth, always provided she make really sincere efforts to obtain friendships, casual and otherwise, with a group of pupils who are worthwhile, but not now included in her "crowd." Such friendships, if only casual and sincere, do not necessarily need to be social, we will point out, but can become contacts which are social and personal assets to Elizabeth on her way

to leadership. They can be developed, however, only if Elizabeth can and will overcome her attitude of superiority and be less openly critical of others. She needs, we will say, to be reminded that she is not faultless, every time she strongly criticizes and excludes from her friendships other able classmates.

In our effort thus to change her mother's attitude by indirection through our solicitude for Elizabeth's personality development, we shall perhaps be helped by alluding casually to the importance and value, in his business career in the town, of her father's wide, democratic, business friendships which have been foundations of his success and popularity.

Sixth typical problem: the over-ambitious and under-ambitious potential leader.-- Tommy and Steven are twins. Both are capable students and well-liked by their classmates. Tommy is not as bright as Steven. His intelligence quotient reaches leadership grade, being 112; [1] but Steven's is 123. Each of the two, however, has a definite weakness. Tommy's ambitions and self-confidence are way out of sight, considering his ability and achievements. He wants to become a writer or a lawyer; but his English is poor and when he gets excited, he stutters amusingly, but without the slightest self-consciousness, apparently. His father is a lawyer of high sbility; Tommy's father is Tommy's hero. But we know he will never make a lawyer. Perhaps his trouble is early failure of his teacher to recognize that Tommy should write with his left

hand. It is possible, but regarded as now too late to attempt a change. There is need to redirect Tommy's plans toward more attainable goals. Otherwise, he may become a hopeless failure in what he attempts and in his own eyes for the rest of his life.

Tommy's problem is much less serious than Steven's. Steven has always done things so easily that he has lost interest in working up to his abilities. Perhaps he never did have much drive. Perhaps he reacted to the praise awarded Tommy by all and sundry for his industry and high hopes, by developing an inner pessimism about his own capacities. At any rate, likeable and helpful as he is, he is very lazy and lacking in push. He has many interests, but few achievements in respect to any of them. We have to try to find out what is the cause of Steven's lack of drive.

We talk with him and with his brother and we are confirmed in our suspicion that Steven is fed up with hearing constantly about Tommy's successes. Every remark seems to him to point to him in invidious comparison. We must try to change his point of vie from a grudging, inhibited jealousy of Tommy which reacts so badly on himself, to one of agreement with praise of Tommy and sincerely high valuation of Tommy's success as well as solicitude for his failures. We must lead him to see that he does himself no harm but only good by being among the foremost in his appreciation of Tommy. If we can do this, Steven is going to go ahead and achieve. His domin-

ating emotional viewpoint will be changed, too, by mentioning that he (Steven) has as good brains as Tommy if not better, if he can stop being jealous of Tommy and start admiring and emulating him.

Seventh typical problem: the potential leader lacking in social grace or poise.-- Mary is young and very tall for her age. She is a good student and has strong character. She is utterly honest, but blurts out truths in a matter-of-fact, abrupt manner which is the despair of her friends and associates and has even created enemies. She is calmly introspective, keeping an excellent diary conscientiously. It is filled with interest and curiosity about social problems. Mary is meticulous in her work; if anything she is over-conscientious, but does not drive herself beyond her endurance, which is great. She has excellent judgment, and steady but ungirlish enthusiasms, all of them being highly intellectual.

Her family is a farm family which has lately moved to the city, where her mother is the successful manager of a small sedate hotel. The father's health had declined, forcing the sale of the farm. Her parents are sturdy responsible folks who adhere strictly to religious principles in practical ways. Both are forceful characters, individualists with liberal beliefs.

The background is strongly apparent in Mary. She has social and humanitarian ambitions, being somewhat tempted to go into missionary or other charch or social work or even

politics. She has already strong interests in certain social reforms and has always taught Sunday school. Due, however, to her concentration on the intellectual side, on social philosophy principles and the like, she is austere and lacking in social grace. Her classmates recognize her ability but it does not loom so large in their minds as her unsympathy with their interests, her soberness and lack of a sense of humor, her sometimes condemnatory and unforgiving attitudes, arising from lack of ordinary social discernments and understandings which they have developed from normal social contacts.

We shall talk with Mary about these lacks and try to develop in her a recognition of the importance of studying and practicing to develop interest in people's individualities, their manners, and their social graces and accomplishments as well as in their basic welfare, their principles, and ideas. We may hope that Mary may accomplish some improvement in her ability to make friendships by modifying her own estimate of the value of less abrupt social behavior. Probably this is all that stands between Mary and a successful leadership personality.

Other problems typical for potential leaders.-- Much has been written of the gifted child and of his problems. 1/ We shall not attempt to develop them here, since they have already been well-discussed and described elsewhere. Many a po-

1/ See under "Gifted Children--their guidance and counseling," in Classified Bibliography.

tential leader is under-privileged, and will need assistance of all kinds to overcome this important incubus in his path to leadership. We must not forget that if such a child has been recognized as a potential leader, he must have very special character to have risen thus far and therefore will probably particularly reward effort in his behalf, especially if little has hitherto been done either for himself or his family. It must be done in a manner not to endanger that integrity and strength of character tried and developed under adverse conditions. Another serious problem, which may not be so rewarding or successful is the child of great ability but weak character. Whatever we can do, however, to help him strengthen it, is very much to his and society's advantage. Another of the less rewarding problems will be that of the over-sensitive child. His is a most serious weakness, derived out of a group of other weaknesses which it will be necessary to ascertain and treat if anything constructive in the way of leadership personality development is to be accomplished. Many other problems exist. The dishonest, the child who learns perversely, the "smarty-aleck," the fearful, in fact almost any difficulty except a combination of extreme unobtrusiveness and submissiveness coupled with medium or low intelligence quotient and weak character might be found and treated, since other strengths discovered could justify selection as a potential leader.

Conclusion

Summary.-- We have here considered in turn (1) what must

be the abilities, character, and personality of the counselor who is assigned to selected potential leaders: in short what he must be and be able to do; (2) what he must study and know in general: information on the characteristics of superior adolescents and in regard to leaders and leadership, in and out of secondary school; (3) what it is the duty of the counselor to discover and understand about the group of potential leaders assigned to him: their abilities, personalities, characters, backgrounds, and problems; (4) what tasks are his and how he must perform them: his self-education and in-service training, measurement and interpretation of measurements and ratings, records researches, interviewing, observing, and home visiting; and (5) we have described seven problems of leadership personality development through counseling, indicated their general suggested handling, and we have listed others.

The chances and values of success.-- Studies on the persistence of leadership ability 1/ indicate that it is something not lost in most cases when the child goes from junior to senior high school, from there to college, and thence to adult life. There are many indications that good leadership ability is, after all, only superior intelligence, plus well-integrated social personality, plus will power to adhere to a good moral standard, plus an unusual degree of ascendance and

1/ See such references under "Persistency of Leadership," in Classified Bibliography.

courage. This of course implies knowledge and possession of such a good moral standard, which is an entirely acquired accomplishment. To help supply lacks in an otherwise complete inventory of such strengths, once these are thoroughly and reliably identified, we employ investigating and counseling techniques upon the selected potential leaders by counselors chosen for the task because of their abilities, personalities, and acquired knowledges of leaders, leadership, and counseling methods. Our chances of success in many cases if this procedure is used should be very good.

In any case, the value of doing <u>something</u>, even if only a little is accomplished in each case, even if we abjectly fail in many a case, is potentially very great, for here we are doing systematically what we can to help mold into stronger shapes the personalities of future leaders of democratic society while they are still malleable and by no means in permanent forms. This is all very much to the good of these individuals and can do much to strengthen the democratic way of life if we are energetic and faithful to the job.

CHAPTER IX

FRAMING A COURSE FOR POTENTIAL LEADERS

Introductory

Purpose of the discussion.-- It is our general purpose here to consider how we may best educate and train potential leaders in order to set them on the road toward effective societal leadership. Specifically, we shall attempt to work out an optimum framework for a formal course having this purpose at the secondary school level. Such a course has the general objective of imparting to, and inculcating in potential leaders certain knowledges and dynamic understandings, and of training them by, and coaching them in certain experiences. Such education and training is calculated to improve their capacities for social leadership and to develop them into better prospective candidates for societal leadership.

Some definitions.-- By "leadership education" we mean instruction, guided study, and class discussion, or other class techniques applied to a class group (preferably of selected, potential leaders) which is assembled for the purpose of developing such knowledges of leadership traits, abilities, techniques, aptitudes, vocations, and problems as are being currently regarded as particularly essential for good social and societal control in democratic countries. We hold that American secondary schools, in general (but particularly

those which stress the traditional, academic disciplines) are not now presenting and emphasizing such knowledges, guidance, and training as are here outlined, to a degree sufficient to develop the qualities, abilities, and creative understandings that democratic society requires in its social and societal leaders.

"Leadership guidance" may refer to the whole educational concept underlying such a program as this study explores and frames. It may also be used to describe the single or small-group advisory conferences between a pupil (or some pupils of the class, or other out-of-class potential leaders) and the teacher or the leadership counselor; or it may refer to personality, ability, vocational aptitude or interest measurement and diagnostic work done in or out of class.

By "leadership training" we mean either experience in leading in the capacity of group leader, officer, or committee member; or we may refer to class training in such leadership techniques or skills as problem-solving, planning, organizing or analyzing projects, ideas, or problems, and speaking to a group or similar leadership skills.

"Societal leadership Curriculum" is the professional title we prefer for our total program for the better guidance, education, and training of potential leaders within secondary schools.

Procedure of discussion.-- We shall direct our attention, in turn, to (1) past or existing courses, or efforts for lead-

ership guidance education; (2) some questions concerning educational possibilities in respect to influencing personality development, and the adequacy of secondary education's achievements in educating for leadership; (3) the development of objectives for a course of leadership education and training out of an analysis of democracy's requirements in respect to social leaders; (4) the units proposed for such a course based upon these objectives; (5) methods of teaching recommended for the course; (6) outside-class training and experimental projects; (7) the organization for the course within the school, requirements in respect to its teacher and development and use of a library of course materials.

Courses for Leadership Development

Past efforts.-- It has always been a basic belief of the public and educators of the past that 'leaders are born--not made.' 1/ This common conviction has been fundamentally weakened, as we have seen, 2/ by careful experiments. Certainly, leadership capacity may be greatly improved, if not indeed created by education and training. This is something which educators like Dr. Arnold of Rugby and other famous leaders in English Public Schools have built their fame upon, the development of leaders for England through secondary educational

1/ See references in Classified Bibliography under "Leadership Ability Inherited" and compare with those under "Leadership Ability Acquired."

2/ The experiments of Eichler and Merrill, op. cit., in teaching leadership.

procedures.[1] But the education that Greece [2] and Rome offered at the height of their civilization also was planned to accomplish the development of leadership ability. Plutarch obviously assembled his biographical sketches and histories of leaders and noble families for their use by the sons of patricians as guides and models to them for their leadership development. Plato's Republic envisioned a selection process for leaders, but Greek education of the aristocracy. Much medieval education was designed for development of clerical leaders. Leadership education and training programs are now current in England, Austria, and Russia.[3]

Present leadership courses in United States.-- Although it is perfectly clear that in this country, particularly in earlier times before the coming of the free public school and the realization of democratic objectives, there was considerable opinion and emphasis in education on training for leadership. It did not altogether stop in the Nineteenth century, as Jones makes clear.[4] It has begun today.

Educational programs designed for gifted children.-- Beginning with dissatisfaction that came to a head in 1920 with the first widespread use of intelligence tests (Measurements

1/Cf. A.J. Jones, op.cit. Chap. VI "England and English Schools"

2/ Ibid Chaps. IV and V

3/See "Leadership Training Programs and Leadership Education--Foreign" in Classified Bibliography; also see A.J. Jones, Chapts. VI, VIII

4/See A.J. Jones, op.cit. Chapts. VIII, IX, X, XI.

of ability to do school work, mainly), there has been a steady spread of programs designed for special education of children of intelligence quotients from 125 or higher upward to as high as 214. 1/ As before remarked, while many of these are by no means potential leaders, a large number are, at least potentially so. It is certain that definitely better than high average intelligence, over 109, is requisite in a potential leader. There are probably few of the better social leaders who are not above average, certainly, on a good test of scholastic ability or, preferably, of at least above average on a test of abstract intelligence, such as that of Pintner. 2/

Educational programs for superior children.-- 3/ By "superior children" are meant children who are good students and usually superior personalities. Minimum intelligence quotient is between 115 and 125, maximum ranges between 130 and 150. Many educators put the minimum figure up to 120 or even higher. However, the conception of superiority is definitely based, in most cases, on the inclusion of children who, while of less scholastic aptitude than gifted children, are selected not by intelligence scores alone, nor by talents only, but by ability talents, personality, and character. Such a conception is much closer to the writer's idea than that of gifted children.

1/ See "Education of Gifted Children" in Classified Bibliog.

2/ See "Measurements of Intelligence" in Classified Bibliog.

3/ References to "Special Education for Superior Children" will be found under that title in the Classified Bibliography.

In New York State, work of this kind is being done in some of the elementary schools, in some of the city high schools, at Floral Park and at Buffalo. Cleveland has long had "Major Work Classes"; Los Angeles and Pasadena have been giving special education to superior children in high school and experiments have been reported here and there about the country. Worcester, Massachusetts has long had a program in the grade schools extending up into the junior high schools.

Experiments with leadership courses.-- Classes organized in high schools and private secondary schools have been reported from a few localities widely separated over the country. Reports come from Burlington, Iowa; 1/ Boulder, Colorado; 2/ Baker, Oregon; 3/ Cleveland Heights, Ohio; 4/ Lakeville, Connecticut;(Indian Mountain School); 5/ and Kendall Green, Massachusetts (Cambridge School). 6/

It should be noted that some of these courses are designed to train pupils who have been selected by their classmates as leaders. Mr. Davis's program must be considered part of Cleveland's "Major Work Classes." The Cummings course

1/ Robert White, Jr. "Class in Leadership", School Review, XLVI (June 1938), pp. 448-52.

2/ Lindley J. Stiles, "Classes in Leadership", Clearing House, XV (October 1940) pp. 74-75.

3/ Leadership Course: "Baker Junior High's Class for Student Officers Improves their use of School Time," Clearing House, XVI (April 1942) pp. 481-82.

4/ T. S. Davis, "Training School for Pupil Leaders", School Review, XLIII (October 1935) pp. 603-7.

5/ William A. Smith, "Responsibilities," School and Society, XLII (Dec. 14, 1935) p. 832.

6/ Charles K. Cummings, Jr. "Human Relations", Progressive Education, XIV (Nov. 1937) pp. 546-47.

is primarily one in the psychology of personality and dealing with people. It is being taught to an apparently unselected group. The Colorado and Iowa courses are in junior high schools. They are courses for already recognized pupil leaders chosen as school leaders by their classmates. Mention should be made at this point of a remarkably interesting enterprise,[1] known as the Students' Institute of National Government, which was organized late in the "30's" by the National Institute of Public Affairs, in Washington, D.C. This has brought, each Spring, 200 outstanding, selected student leaders from many high schools distributed all over the country east of the Mississippi, to Washington for five days. There, under skillful guidance and a well-worked-out program they listen to government officers and develop insight into the workings of our federal agencies. They are accompanied by several carefully selected teacher of social studies from their high schools.

Courses for potential leaders in high school.-- The nearest to the writer's conception of the actual reported senior high school courses that have been given for what may be regarded as potential leaders and were designed to develop leadership, that this writer knows about, are those which have been conducted since 1935 in the West Seattle High School by Dr. Edward J. Liston. Dr. Liston reported these classes, which are called "Personal Achievement" classes, in a thesis for his

1/ Henry M. Willard, "Leadership Training through an Institute of Government," Social Education, VI (April 1942) pp.172-4.

Doctor of Philosophy degree, taken at the University of Washington (State) in 1939. 1/

Although Dr. Liston calls his selectees "superior pupils", the basis of selection indicates that intelligence or scholastic aptitude is only one of several qualifications. The first class of pupils were first individually recommended by teachers; then, those under 110 I?Q? were eliminated; personal interviews with Dr. Liston followed, resulting in further eliminations on various grounds; a few especially talented children were added to leaven the group. This was the method of the first selection of a class which included 14 girls and 14 boys. Dr. Liston reported the reactions of pupils and parents to the class at year-ends. Results were sufficiently approved and successful that other high schools in Seattle have now set up classes in "Personality Achievement." The entire emphasis in this leadership training program is on achievement, i.e. what the pupil achieves for others in the school and community. The final selection of pupils, the course methods, and its content indicate very definitely that training for leadership is the main objective of the course. This is confirmed in Dr. Liston's thesis. There, the fifth conclusion of the last chapter reads: "Superior pupils should learn how to assume leadership in group activity from train-

1/ Edward J. Liston, "Personal Achievement Classes for Superior High School Pupils," A Doctor's Thesis, University of Washington, 1939.
This work of Dr. Liston's and his thesis are regarded by this writer as excellent pieces of work. The writer hopes to visit Seattle and these classes sometime.

ing in leadership procedure in special classes." 1/

Concerning Possibilities and Achievement in Leadership Education

Influence of formal teaching of principles of social behavior upon personality and character.-- It need not be affirmed that lectures, class discussions, studying, and the functioning of individuals in a formal teaching and learning situation will develop strength of will, for example, to any great degree, or even a pleasanter disposition, in order to affirm and persuade anyone that we can considerably influence the personality and character of individual pupils by applying teaching techniques with that objective in view in a course which develops ideas on good principles of social behavior. Most of us are eventually bored and disaffected by constant sermonizing. But wisely-led group discussion and study of intelligent social behavior by intelligent persons is a very different matter. Before we proceed further, let us consider the nature of personality and character.

Definitions of "personality" and "character,"-- By "personality" we mean two things; (1) the various (i.e. innate or accidentally acquired) physical, mental or behavioral characteristics of an individual, plus (2) the habitual behavioral characteristics, (i.e. tendencies to behave in certain ways), which have resulted from choices made either from innate reasoning capacity and general intelligence, or from individual taste, or by an individual's adapting his actions to the re-

quirements of his fixed characteristics or his developed ones.

We distinguish "character" from "personality" by its moral quality. What we call "good character" is simply our recognition and judgment of evidence of adherence, (plus disposition and power of will to adhere), to what we regard as a good moral standard. Hence "character" is premised on the belief in free will, the potentiality and existence of individual choice and chosen actions. It therefore includes behavior patterns that have developed from an individual's habitual choices or decisions in directing his own behavior under conditions where he was in a position to decide or direct it.

In short, the personality of an individual is composed of his fixed or developed <u>non-moral</u> characteristics. His character is composed of his <u>moral</u> characteristics. These arise from his personal choices of actions. These choices he presumably refers to those standards of behavior which he knows about, understands, agrees with, and habitually lives by.

It should be added that no test or evidence of character may be regarded as reliable or valid unless seven factors are present: (1) possession by the individual of a standard; (2) existence of a problem of choice; (3) clear recognition of the application of a principle included in the standard; (4) clear recognition of what course of action such application of principle requires; (5) choice free from compulsions or influences other than conviction that such action is called for; (6) unpleasant, difficult, or dangerous hardships likely expected in

carrying out the action; (7) the carrying out of the action, or the genuinely sincere, sustained, and courageous attempt to carry it out, so long as the fundamental situation remains the same.

Judgments on improvement of character.-- It is clear from the above analysis of components required in an ideal test for character that any judgments we can readily make as to the character of an individual, its description, or improvements achieved in it must be extremely tentative and unscientific. Improvement in personality is not too difficult to detect. This is because it consists of the more outward aspects of an individual where motives and reference to a standard of ethics (moral ethics) are less definitely required, if required at all.

Achieving improvements in personality.-- While we cannot hope to change innate characteristics of personality, we can do much to strengthen modifiable traits by the application of several practical class techniques. Space exists only to mention one at this point, to illustrate. Socrates laid down as his basic aim of education: "Know thyself." Shakespeare underlines this importance of self-knowledge with the sage advice of Polonius in Hamlet, "This above all--to thine own self by true; And it must follow as the night the day, Thou canst not then be false to any man." 1/

But how is a person to develop self-knowledge so that he may be true to himself? This problem, most unfortunately,

1/ Act I, Scene 3.

has been one of the most serious ones for adolescents since time immemorial and, withal, never adequately undertaken by secondary educators. If the excuse was once valid that reliable techniques for analyzing and diagnosing personality did not exist, it is no longer valid. We have many reliable instruments and techniques today. Much may be done, then, by the wise and effective application of these to help a child lay the necessary foundation of self-knowledge that he requires in order to build an improved and consistent structure of personality. We may help him to be true to himself by helping him to know himself.

Improving character.-- We have stressed in the formation of good character the importance of a moral standard. A good moral standard is a good standard of social behavior. Without cutting across religious training, we can in this course develop high valuations of universally-recognized principles of social ethics and personal attitude. This may be done in many ways: by consideration of desirable and undesirable traits, by discussion of various significant questions of optimum social behavior. By analysis and discussion, with the object of reaching solutions of the concrete, familiar problems of adolescents at home and at school. Thus we may help to build or strengthen the ethical standard which is the necessary foundation, the absolute reference required for development of sound character.

Developing personality by planned training.-- Can practice

influence development of personality and character? Educators were never so cognizant as they are today of the importance of setting up real-life (or as close to real as possible) situations, if we are to get a maximum amount of "transfer of training" into actual situations where the training is to be used. More than to any other generalized type of accomplishment, this applies to leadership. Over and over again we are reminded by writers on the subject of leadership: "Leadership cannot function in a vacuum." Since leadership is a composite of personality, and ability traits possessed by an individual equipped with the necessary funds of knowledge, it is obvious that such traits cannot be adequately developed without practice in actual leadership situations. This is a principle so long recognized that we hardly need emphasize it here, except to note that it cuts directly across the traditional fallacy that "leaders are born not made." We recognize that practice in leading is unquestionably and emphatically the only vital technique and by all means the most practical one for developing leadership. No program of leadership education can ever afford to ignore this principle.

Development of reasoning ability.-- Are the schools at present giving adequate attention to the development of reasoning ability, problem-solving, and techniques of thinking in their superior pupils? Few will dispute that they are not. Must a superior mind wait for education and development of these skills until college, if then? When the mechanics of

reasoning and thinking were obscure, not understood, or vague in the minds of even the most brilliant thinkers of the day, there was some excuse for concentration by the educators on various bodies of subject matter which had apparently, in the long school of educationally experienced, proven to be good "disciplines", "mind training", and such. This is no longer the case. Now we know how we think, at least more than our ancestors ever hoped to know. There is not the least excuse for retaining the old methods of education or witholding direct instruction, in the case of superior pupils, as to the nature, mechanism, and applications of the fundamental techniques of intelligent thinking.

Developing dynamic interests in social reform.-- Courses in social problems we have. Courses in "Problems in Democracy" we have. Courses in Economics and Civics and Sociology and Geography and History we have long had. But do we have dynamic interests in social problems which endure the vicissitudes of college and adult life? We do not. Why not?

Teachers and educators belong to a profession which is reputed to be the most timorous. In no respect are we so timorous as in our professional approach to the problem of finding ways and means by which we may make the school a vital and dynamic factor in achieving social reform, which is to say, in achieving social progress, as we are in our approach to teaching the social problems. They who will be the most effective factors in the drives for social reforms that must come if our civilization is not to fall apart must be in the schools

today. We do not know why they are, nor can we hope to identify them exactly. We are not trying to find them by every reasonably effective method. Those whom we believe we have identified, not as potential leaders, but as "superior pupils" (that is to say, pupils who are in the main recognized primarily as pupils with high intelligence quotients), even those we are not daring to challenge with genuine discussions ("with no holds barred") of the most serious problems menacing social progress.

What must we do? We must find, and gather together in at least one class of the high school, our potential leaders and superior pupils. In this class we must see to it that they learn not only what the most serious social problems are, but why they are the most serious. They must know what is being thought about these problems and decide what they themselves think. They must have been led to think about them fundamentally and incisively, and to have strong urges to make their lives count toward doing something about them. This much we can and must do. The writer believes it can be done by means of the class and by outside project techniques which are herein outlined.

Requirements and Objectives of a Course to Develop Better Societal Leaders

Some implied premises and conclusions.-- Certain unstated premises of the writer in respect to what can and must be done by secondary educators to improve and prepare prospective

social leaders for social leadership are implied from the selection and discussion of the four educational questions examined in the previous section. These premises are based on the writer's conclusions as to what we most lack, so stand in greatest need of, and hence are most required to develop in the future.leaders of our democratic life.

Requirements.-- The writer's conclusions as to the basic objectives indicated for a course which proposes to help develop better leaders are founded upon his conclusions on what we most need to improve in our leaders. Long deliberation on all the evidence he can find leads him to the following general persuasions: (1) We need more leaders who are of higher innate intelligence, have developed social intelligence (or insight) and similar abilities, and have indicated possession of those abilities by achievements demanding their use. We need, then, to develop more leaders who not only can think straight, but who do think straight. (2) We need more leaders who have innate and developed personality traits desirable in democratic social leaders, and have developed strong characters. (3) We need leaders who know how to lead, who can and do lead ably and wisely, people who understand and can successfully use the techniques and skills of leadership. (4) We need leaders who are equipped with broad liberal educations; but we have special need for leaders who possess a competent grasp of social problems, especially the large-scale ones, and have developed not only understandings of their seriousness and formed opinions

and attitudes about them but have built up intentions and plans that involve themselves in efforts to overcome such problems.

If we analyze these conclusions of what abilities, traits, and knowledges must be found and developed if we are to improve our fund of good candidates for social leadership, it is apparent that there are six major concepts around which our thinking centers. They are: (1) Intelligence; (2) Thinking Techniques; (3) Leadership; (4) Personality and Character; (5) Knowledge; and (6) Social Problems (especially societal problems).

To sum up, then, we are convinced that what is fundamentally required in our social leaders is people who are of, from good to gifted intelligence, who have developed this and social intelligence as well as other social skills, who possess and have developed those personality and character traits requisite in good, democratic social leaders, who have learned about leaders and the arts of leadership, and had some experience in leading, who have learned how to think straight, and think with particular effectiveness in respect to the problems of human social (especially large-group) relationships.

<u>The special needs of the potential leader</u>.-- The course we contemplate should be planned from objectives arising from the requirements of democratic society in respect to the qualities, abilities, and training which must be obtained in school today for the improvement of its future leaders. However, it must not be forgotten that it must also meet the needs of the

potential leaders selected, especially in connection with their difficult task of making vocational decisions and in securing actual placement in vocational or further educational situations which will be good preparation for, or avenues to eventual leadership service. On the one hand, we must prepare them and urge that they embark upon efforts and careers which will meet the special present difficulties and necessities of democratic life. On the other hand, they, as potential leaders have special, very definite requirements for certain assistance which we are bound to meet if they are to get ahead. Such assistance falls largely in the field of vocational guidance.

Their special needs are (1) self-measurements and ratings leading to diagnosis and evaluation of their strengths and weaknesses; (2) knowledge and analysis of the requirements and activities of various vocations leading to responsible social positions of service to society; (3) adequate opportunity to consider under guidance, in an orderly, scientific manner, the relative extents to which they are fitted by capacity and training for each field that attracts or interests them, the amount of demand for people in such fields, the opportunities available locally, the relative convenience of access, their parent's wishes, and family requirements.

These needs for vocational guidance will be supplementary and additional to previous educational efforts of the guidance department, but we are thoroughly justified in making special efforts to meet them in the case of these pupils because of

their high potential value to the maintenance and progress of democratic society. We shall discuss vocational guidance in Chapter X, both in respect to the vocational guidance units in the course and to placement and follow-up work.

Objectives for the course.-- Objectives for the course now become perfectly clear. In general, we shall seek to provide in it or through it training, materials, guidance, and opportunities designed to improve or develop in potential leaders abilities and skills, and to inculcate information and understandings requisite for good social leadership. We shall seek to encourage responsible participation in school activities and to inspire personal efforts to achieve for the school by helping to solve school problems.

Specifically, the individual objectives for our course become:

(1) To develop self-knowledge with the help of objective and subjective instruments;

(2) To develop an understanding insight into the trait requirements of a socially effective, balanced personality;

(3) To help the pupil to understand the nature of character, to distinguish it from outward personality, and to assist him in constructing an intelligent philosophy of life and a good moral standard;

(4) To develop a knowledge of the lives and achievements of great leaders and an appreciation of the traits and abilities which accounted for their high value to society;

(5) To develop an understanding of the capacities, methods, and skills required for effective, democratic leadership and provide opportunities for gaining confidence and training by experience in leading;

(6) To develop a practical grasp of the various types of techniques for orderly and effective thinking,--their basic elements, mechanisms, and applications;

(7) To assist the pupil to obtain accurate, reliable, objective, and useful knowledge of his own interests and aptitudes in relation to various vocations through the use of measurements, ratings, interest inventories, and analyses;

(8) To help the pupil form equally accurate judgments and understandings of a group of vocations he selects to study, by assisting him to obtain or work out for himself job analyses of leadership vocations;

(9) To guide the pupil in assembling, organizing, evaluating and interpreting information on his abilities, traits, interests, and aptitudes, to help him match these with leadership-vocation qualifications and job analyses, and to assist him in reaching decisions on choice of a vocation and in making personal plans;

(10) To inculcate intelligent understandings of the major social and societal problems and promote an appreciation of their major implications and adequate grasp of the relative importance and seriousness;

(11) To train in orderly thinking by working out analyses

of these problems into their basic causes and effects, and to develop familiarity with, and understanding of various solutions proposed for them.

(12) To train in problem-solving techniques by encouraging the working out of plans by pupils for overcoming the various social problems; to thus develop conceptions of important opportunities for serving society; to inspire pupils to plan careers that will contribute to social progress.

Units of the Proposed Course

The title of the course: "Service and Society."-- Dr. Liston in his thesis writes in regard to the selection of the title "Personal Achievement" for his class for superior pupils:[1]

> We wanted our title to refer to group appreciation of personal achievement which leads to leadership. We wanted widespread appreciation as an accompaniment and we would gamble on getting leadership as a result of this group appreciation.
>
> The title of the class has proved very satisfactory and the use of the title and its explanation as a teaching device in the class has been of real value, for the word "achievement" has an objective meaning because it is behavior that solves problems and meets needs. Achievement is the end product of a social process in which there is (a) a need of some sort, (b) recognition of that need, (c) action which meets that need in some way. The meeting of a common need will sooner or later receive recognition....An idea, a club, a program, an improvement of conduct--whatever will meet a need is an achievement. And, finally, achievement plus appreciation is leadership.
>
> So, in this class, the question asked as a standard of performance was, and is, "What have you achieved?" Not only "How good?" or "How great?" but also, "What has been done?" is important.
>
> Appreciating is a quality of followership; while being appreciated is a phase of democratic leadership...The name "Personal Achievement" means something. This is a point of emphasis in the

course.

We must work with superior material in the form of superior pupils of a selective variety if we are to get real achievement from them....Few students or people at large are endowed with the rare combinations of energies, sensitivity, insight, and persistence, which lead to superior success. And only those few should be encouraged thus to use their high powers. The thesis upon which this class was founded, however, is that these few certainly should be encouraged, should be trained in achievement procedures, and should be given an opportunity to shoulder social responsibility.

It is our aim to show them the factors of personality which make for achievement, so that they may gauge their own aptitudes and direct their efforts with a well-informed social intelligence. In so doing, it is necessary to show how achievement differs from ordinary success. 1/

The writer's reasoning in selecting for this course the title "Service and Society" is very similar to that of Liston. Our aim is to orient the thinking of the class toward ideals of high-minded service to society as workers and leaders toward solutions of social problems. Our hope is that the school will regard the course as one similar to "Problems in Democracy or Sociology" except that it includes personal and vocational guidance as well as civic education and leadership training.

Quarterly organization of units.-- Each quarter of the full school year is to contain three units. Units are in most cases of a "problem" type. The usual approach is to study and discuss in class a series of questions. Each unit is a single problem, stated in a question which serves as the title of the unit. Each quarter of the year's work has a main objective implicit in its three units. The statements of course objectives above are arranged and selected so that one objec-

1/ Ibid., p. 95.

tive applies to each of the dozen units of the year's work, and are given in the same order.

The first quarter.-- Reference to page 218 will confirm that the fundamental objective clearly common to the first three objectives there stated is: to help the pupil lay some necessary foundations for improving his personality and character. Since the work consists of two kinds of thinking in this direction, the work of the First Quarter may reasonably be called:

"Self-Appraisal and Self-Organization"

Unit I -- "What sort of a person am I?" -- The teacher carefully prepares the class for a comparatively unorthodox initial procedure: the administering of some measurements, both objective and subjective, of personality and character. These include tests, self-rating scales, and inventories of various kinds with various purposes. They are withheld until the teacher judges that the class is ready to receive and complete them usefully and satisfactorily. He points out that these tests are not really tests at all. He explains that the results on them are to be strictly for their own information and use. He urges the pupils to answer and complete each paper with as much care and with as good judgment as they possess. He carefully plans to protect every pupil from any possible chance of undesirable publicity about any of the conclusions drawn from any of these measurements which might discomfort or embarrass him. Except for others' ratings of him-

self, he may score his own sheets or may have the teacher score any or all of them. 1/

Some of the blank instruments may be discussed later point by point in class or filled ones in personal interviews, but individuals' results are not supposed to be known to anyone other than the teacher and individual pupil. Some results may be known only to the pupil in question.

The importance of knowing oneself is stressed as well as the difficulty of obtaining objective, reliable judgments or pictures of oneself lined up beside the fictitious "average person."

Each pupil completes the unit by assembling all measurement results obtained about himself and summarizing them on a comprehensive personal-analysis sheet. He may follow this up, but is not required to do so, with a personal conference with the teacher, a counselor, or the guidance director, regarding the conclusions assembled, and what he could well do about them. He may, at his own discretion, withold or permit the teacher to see his self-analysis sheet. He must, however, complete it as a course and unit requirement. It remains permanently in his possession or he may volunteer to give it to the teacher or guidance officer who will study it and place it with the other permanent records of the pupil. When assembling

1/ The teacher should collect all ratings of a pupil made for him by two to four of his classmates, and strike averages on each rating, recording these averaged ratings on another rating blank of the same kind. This should then be returned to the pupil, and the used sheets discarded. This will enable the pupil to compare his own ratings of himself with the average of his classmates' ratings.

vocational aptitude information in the Third Quarter, the pupil will take these same measurements over again, obtaining ratings, if possible, from the same classmates, and record results beside those made in this unit, showing his gains or losses. That the pupil is going to do this is announced by the teacher at this time.

Unit II -- "What is a good, effective personality?" -- Herein the children learn to be discriminating in their understandings of desirable and undesirable elements of personality as that term has been previously defined. The values of balance, of abilities and skills, of consistency, of extraversive traits, are taken up individually. Cases and problems of personality are an important element of the subject matter. Innate traits are distinguished from acquired ones. Modifiability of acquired traits, elimination or modification of undesirable ones and development of weak ones that need to be strong if a well-developed personality is to be attained, are all considered. Analyses of assigned problems of personality adjustment and improvement are made by the pupils for the unit essay.

Unit III -- "What are the foundations of a strong character?"-- Here the teacher's first effort is to help the pupils make a very definite distinction 1/ between character and personality. When this is perfectly clear, questions are proposed and class discussion produces light on the nature of

1/ Refer to page 207 of this chapter for the writer's definitions.

character traits and their importance in producing people who can or cannot make valuable achievements and contributions. In this unit, also, great use is made of case studies. These are selected and suggested problems of decision of actual individuals found in biographies which show weak or strong character. Cases may be contributed by the students from clippings of the daily press and brought up for discussion at the discretion of the teacher. Considerable attention is devoted to the origin and development of strength and weaknesses in specific traits of character and to discussion of causes and effects. The unit is completed with an assignment to write a paper either on "My Philosophy of Life" or "My Code of Ethics."

Since personality and character inventories develop especially good motivation for alert class work throughout the first quarter, there is good justification for spreading their administration and interpretation over into the second two units.

Unit IV -- "What traits and abilities accounted for the high value to society of great and lesser leaders?" -- In this unit, we begin our second quarter's work. It is centered about the quarter's main objective, which is to determine what are

"The Qualities and Techniques of Good Leadership"

This unit, then, approaches the study of leadership from the angle of studying selected biography 1/ and seeks to develop ability to recognize traits of character, personality and

1/ The best general text of leaders from the biographical point of view is undoubtedly that of E. S. Bogardus, Leaders and Leadership, D. Appleton-Century Co., New York, 1934.

ability, to classify leaders into basic types, 1/ to determine the most valuable traits by considering achievements and ways of achieving. The pupils individually examine critical periods in the lives of great men and women, referred to them by page references. They report their conclusions on what powers and traits contributed to the accomplishments that accounted for these men's value to the world. Discussions in class can be well motivated by reports and by questions that point up ideas likely to be neglected or being wrongly developed. Submission of a paper analyzing the decisively important characteristics of a pupil-chosen leader is the unit paper.

Unit V --"What are the capacities, methods, and skills of effective democratic leadership? 2/-- While the approach to leadership in Unit IV was via study of leaders, here we concentrate on techniques, and attempt to summarize these, as well as the required abilities, traits, and necessary skills. Parliamentary Law is dipped into as well as methods of conducting discussions, holding conferences, planning, organizing, directing, and teaching groups. Distinctions between various techniques are sharpened by good developmental discussion, study of assigned references, and experience reports from projects. Methods of control from the broad angle of types of leadership, domination, and headmanship are defined and evaluated. Their

1/ A valuable reference, for teachers especially, on types of leaders is Paul Pigors, Leadership or Domination, Boston, Houghton Mifflin Co., 1935. Also see articles by W. H. Cowley in Bibliography.

2/ The best basic text here is that of Ordway Tead, The Art of Leadership, New York, McGraw-Hill Book Co., 1935.

relative validity when applied in varying situations and with various kinds of groups is considered and judged. Some attention is devoted to the psychology of groups and of leaders of various kinds. There is research and reports from assigned reading by individual pupils on such subjects as the origins of leadership and leaders, (Social Anthropology), the psychology of group thinking and control (Social Psychology) and the nature of social leadership (Sociology of Leadership). A unit paper is written on such a subject as "How to Be a Good Forum Leader." Much attention is devoted to the skills of speaking, listening, being diplomatic and tactful, and to every other leadership skill except that of orderly thinking, which is the topic of the next unit.

Unit VI -- "How do we think most effectively?" -- This is a carefully worked out unit in which the pupils learn about, discuss, and then apply the various techniques of orderly and effective thinking. Techniques of straight thinking and good methods and habits of study are investigated. A firm grasp of the basic elements and mechanisms of effective thought is first developed by lectures, reading, and discussion. Logical applications of the various techniques and reasons for their choice are considered. Analyses of actual techniques or identification of elements of them being employed in various school and community situations are discussed. The methods employed by scientists (the scientific method), by the social scientists, technicians, manufacturers, and so on, are exemplified, and

reduced to fundamentals. Induction and deduction, logic, and experiments of various types and employing different methods are discussed. Teaching techniques are especially gone into to determine fundamentals and their basis in the psychology of learning and imparting information. The unit essay is on such a subject as "The Elements of the Scientific Method with an Application in a Simple Experiment."

Unit VII -- "What are my vocational aptitudes?" -- In this unit, we move into the vocational guidance work of the Third Quarter, which work is centered around the main objective: to provide for potential leaders special help in

"Vocational and Educational Guidance"

As previously remarked, we shall postpone discussion of the contents of these three units, Units VII, VIII, and IX, to the next chapter.

Unit VIII -- "What are the qualities, educational training, experience, and methods required in certain (selected) vocations?"

Unit IX -- "What vocation am I best qualified for, and most likely to succeed in?"

Unit X -- "What are the major social problems and what kinds of leaders are working on them?"-- In this Fourth Quarter of the year's class work we turn our attentions to the major social problems of the day, to their causes, the solutions being advanced or worked out and by whom, and to applying problem-solving techniques to social problems. Hence, the

central objective of this quarter's work is to produce basic understandings concerning

"Social Problems and Solutions"

In Unit X the focus of attention is placed on the nature, relative seriousness, origins, and consequences of our principle failures or weaknesses in meeting the difficulties of making adjustments to the changing relationships of social groups. We wish to know what kinds of leaders are attempting to deal with these problems, what methods are being used, what achievements are being made and what failures are apparent in these efforts. This is not an attempt to duplicate the materials of a course in Sociology, Problems of Democracy, or Civics. We wish to get a bird's-eye view, to form working, practical estimates, to develop elementary familiarity with social problems. The class work develops as usual from assigned readings, reports, and discussions. It is especially motivated by visits to functioning community institutions and by consideration of social problems existing in the school. The unit essay is on such a topic as "War as a Social Problem" or "Racial Discrimination in Our State."

Unit XI -- What are the causes of social problems and what solutions are being urged for them?-- In this unit we wish to tap the knowledge of the social philosophers and of the social reformers. From the philosophers we wish to know "Why?"; from the reformers we wish to know "What is the best solution (in your opinion)?" Discussion of causes will produce

familiarity with the social interpretations of various thinkers and schools of social interpretation. Discussion of solutions will throw light on political, social, and economic schemes and programs of social reform. The platforms of political parties in relation to social reform will be analyzed and discussed.

The unit essay is on such a subject as "Is Economic Government the Best Solution for the Problem of Economic Justice?" It must be emphasized in regard to these suggested essays topics that our principle object is to promote the initiation of thinking by these potential leaders along lines which will stimulate the development of the kinds of ability, skills, and attitudes which social leaders of the future must have. It must not be forgotten that all too many of these boys and girls are leaving and will continue to leave high school either to go directly into an occupation or to enter further education which is specialized and lacking in opportunities for obtaining the kinds of abilities, knowledges, and attitudes which the potential leaders of our society must have.

Unit XII -- "What solutions of these problems can we evolve?"-- Here our major emphasis is frankly inspirational. Our approach involves a training procedure and an educational one. First, we examine each individual societal problem by applying to each a problem-solving technique of thinking adapted to the special requirements of social problems as distinguished from other types of problems. We spend considerable time developing what we believe may be an effective method,

one which will be productive of real solutions. As we examine each of the four societal problems, we become interested ourselves in the opportunities offered to us by the difficulties and importance attaching to each to make contributions important for social progress. We begin to consider in what manner people following the vocations we have studied and chosen to enter may help humanity to continue its progress by helping it to solve its large-scale social problems.

If this be "indoctrination", then the writer can only reply that we already have much indoctrination of much less value, (if it is all justified and valuable), than this. This kind of indoctrination, in a single unit in the high school, which has for its object the making of more societal leaders by inspiring potential leaders to wish to make their lives count for social progress, this we surely need! The fact is we can no longer get ahead without it!

For a unit essay, we suggest such a topic as "What Should be Done to Strengthen and Improve Democratic Government?"

Some Teaching Methods in the Course

Type of class.-- We do not recommend that the numbers of this class be over 25. Preferably, the group should not be larger than 20. This would be likely, in any case, to be about as many potential leaders as any good-sized high school would have in a single junior or senior class. Assuming that the junior class has 100 members, we shall find perhaps one-fifth of these to be potential leaders, more or less. With

this number, we can conduct a seminar-type class. A considerable number of periods are entirely pupil-led. Many lessons are planned by planning committees or individual leaders. This gives pupils experience in three types of leader functions. They learn to plan, organize their thinking, and teach. It is excellent leadership training and improves the democratic atmosphere and the achievements of the class. The teacher at these times remains in the background and only interupts to make important corrections, re-establish control when this is required, and sharpen the discussion with good questions at opportune moments in the discussions of topics.

Lectures and assigned readings.-- The usual assigned readings and a number of genuine lectures by the teacher will be given. These normally come at the beginnings of units. Considerable use is made of individual assignments of reading, but group texts and general reading assignments in them and other books and workbooks are also employed. Use of several texts, with teacher-selected chapters for readings by class and leader for the day is preferable.

Projects.-- Selection and assignment of projects of many kinds for work in the school, or in extra-curricular activities is a most important part of the work (See next section). Planning, discussions of plans, reports, and discussions of reports is done to a large degree in class and is given much class time.

Self-measurements and ratings.-- As already indicated,

much class time is devoted to this work. We have sufficiently discussed it above, in this chapter. It is not only valuable for motivation but also for self-organization and vocational choice.

Public speaking, forums, conferences, debates, etc.--Full use is made of all of these techniques, most of them well-known. Emphasis is placed on methods and reasons for them. Pupils are encouraged to be frankly critical and to develop discernment in respect to methods of presentation, conduction of forums, procedure in conferences, and debating techniques, reasoning, et cetera.

Some class techniques used by Liston.-- 1/ Liston mentions several unique methods used in his class,

> After the first month, we 'panned" a member of the class each day we had time. Each member of the class took his turn at saying nothing good of the individual named for the day. These criticisms were written down by the member 'panned', and, if the shoe fit he was to make amends for his shortcomings. If he felt the criticism was unfair or misconceived, he was given a chance to defend himself. This was done in a straight from the shoulder fashion and the comments were seriously considered. This process proved to be popular and some members of the class took pride in reporting to the class at odd times progress that had been made in remedying a mode of behavior which had been criticized.... To balance this, in the last month a compliment day has been used in which the outstanding traits of each individual are brought out in tribute form.
>
> Emphasis, in this class, was placed on the value of having an individual do something constructive that would benefit the whole group. As an illustration, it was the duty of a volunteer committee in the class to get a speaker for the class on the subject of each unit, or on subjects considered relative to the course.

1/ E. J. Liston, op. cit., pp. 110-113; 104.

Such methods, plus motion pictures, illustrated talks, given by the pupils, and explanatory or demonstrative lectures are recommended.

Outside-Class Projects and Training

Importance of projects and training.-- At least as important as the class in leadership is the purposive training (and projects for its development) experiences that the pupils are urged to obtain by responsible participation in extra-curricular activities. In these projects they plan improvements of the school, or to supply school or community needs.

Some projects undertaken by Liston's pupils.-- 1/

> Everyone was required to prove his ability to achieve by working on a school project which involved ability in problem solving. These were written up as junior research theses. We had a "Know Seattle" project, a "Camp Fire Girls" project, a "Helping the Maladjusted Girl" project, a Public Affairs Club. Eight were active in the Student Forum, three had charge of assemblies on Lincoln's Birthday and Memorial Day and served on committees to plan assemblies all during the next year. Another project had for its purpose assembling information for incoming students, another group organized four field trips--to the Seattle Times Building, jail, Washington Cooperative, and telephone building. Three organized and help edit a student handbook that was distributed to all students the following year, two organized a College Preparatory Board, one boy organized a Small Boys' Club for boys five feet or less in height. So as a result of the class, every member has gone into one or more activities in which he had not previously engaged.

A bulletin board was set up which contained individual activity and achievement records, up-to-date, of each class member. This, says Liston, proved to be highly stimulating

1/ E. J. Liston, op. cit., p. 100f.

and informative, many pupils being encouraged to become an active participant in school affairs or some project because of this record. Competition, even, to engage in or plan useful activities and projects resulted. We are not surprised to learn that many fine friendships were one valuable result of the class.

Outside-class counseling and coaching.-- Although not always practicable, it is highly worth-shile if the teacher makes a point of being present during outstanding leadership experiences being obtained by one or more pupils of the class in order to coach on leadership techniques, or criticise constructively their performance. This can be arranged in advance to greatest advantage of the pupil and convenience of the teacher. If the teacher cannot be present, it is of real value to send, if possible, the leadership counselor or one or more members of the class to report their reactions and to coach and assist the pupil. This is especially helpful when a pupil, who has not been active or responsible in school or outside social-group activities, has his first try-out or first assembles a group in connection with an initiated activity or project.

Also leadership counseling by the teacher in interviews with a single individual or a group which have been working together or are planning a project or group together, can be of great value and assistance both to teacher and pupils. If at all possible such interviews should be pupil-sought, rather

than teacher-required. Only in rare cases should the teacher require a personal interview, and then for good cause.

Organization of the Course: "Service and Society"

Grade placement.-- The course proposed was originally conceived as one for high school seniors. However, as Liston makes clear, if we are to make the course useful not only to the pupil and (eventually) to society by supplying it with better prospective social leaders, but also to the school, it is essential that it be a junior-year course, so that pupils who have had its training may have further opportunity for service to the school organizations and activities during their senior year. The writer is aware that these materials and approaches are advanced and will demand modification, in any case, to suit the degree of maturity characteristic of various school groups. He therefore has concluded that the course should be a senior-level course to which juniors who are especially qualified by intelligence, social and emotional maturity, achievement level and/or leadership experience shall be admitted.

Requirements for admission to the course.-- In deciding on the bases of selecting superior pupils, Dr. Liston quotes a survey study made by Lewis C. Martin, which apparently was an important guide to him in making his selections. Martin studied the practices being used in selecting superior children in thirty cities in the Midwest, in 1938, and found that pupils were being selected on the basis of the following items,

given in order of frequency of use: [1] (1) Intelligence tests; (2) Standard tests in the classroom; (3) Teacher's judgments; (4) School records; (5) Health examinations; (6) Parental sanction; (7) Psychological clinic; (8) Classroom work; (9) Rating study habits; (10) Manifested interest; (11) Projected educational plan for the future.

Liston's own viewpoint on this, he states thus, [2] "It seems well, then, to make use of all or a combination of these measures as outlined by Martin in order to make our selection more valid and hence more productive of educational results..."

Since we are here more anxious to locate potential leaders who are not necessarily superior students, or regarded as superior pupils by their teachers, our bases of selection are somewhat different. [3] But admission to the course would be definitely by invitation and final decisions would be made on the classification of a child as a potential leader by a committee made up of the pupil's grade school principal, or if he were not available, the proper (same sex, perhaps) leadership counselor, the guidance director, and the high school principal; thus, a committee of three. [4]

1/ Lewis C. Martin, "The Education of Gifted Children", Journal of Exceptional Children, IV No. 5 (Feb. 1938) pp. 101-106.

2/ E. J. Liston, op. cit. pp. 25f.

3/ See all of our Chapter VII, on this.

4/ This compares with Liston's committee, which included the Principal and Vice-Principal of the high school and himself as final judge, all the teachers making the original suggestions or nominations.

Other non-potential-leader classes in "Service and Society.--It should be pointed out that the writer is convinced that several divisions of this class could well be taught, when three things would then be true: (1) In the first, or A Division, only potential leaders who elected the course would be included. (2) In other divisions material would be modified to suit the intelligence of the pupils. Also, leadership training aspects would be less prominent, more time being devoted to selection and evaluation of leaders, democratic cooperation techniques, and biographical study of leaders. (3) This procedure would get around any objection that we were setting up an exclusive kind of education open only to a selected few, who were being trained to lead the others.

The kind of criticism we are liable to face and must be ready to meet is exmplified by the remark of W. B. Pitkin in his book on the Psychology of Achievement, 1/

> After all, the average taxpayer and voter has enough animal egotism in him to resent the suggestion that he spend his own good money to train children brighter than his own so that, in the next generation they may hold high positions--while his own children earn simple livings as chauffeurs, bricklayers, motormen, and janitors. While it sounds like the purest logic to request the State to seek and equip its future leaders, it is poor psychology....

Selection of a course teacher.-- Little need be said of this here, since much that was said in Chapter VIII about the necessary, qualities, knowledges, and abilities applying to selection of a counselor for potential leaders applies also to

1/ Quoted by Liston, op. cit.; Pitkin's book published by Grosset and Dunlap, New York, 1930. p.474.

the teacher of such a course. It is clear, though, that more knowledge of leadership, plus special knowledge of the socialized recitation and the seminar techniques and success in operating them is important. Also, the teacher of the course should be a good example of a leader in the teaching field. Special preparation should have been obtained in regard to measurement and interpretation of personality and character, and of vocational aptitudes and interests. The teacher should have developed clear-cut knowledge of the techniques of thinking, and their elements, and their effective applications. Possession of traits of sympathy and yet firmness is important, since many potential leaders are highly ascendant, and must not be allowed to "run away with" any situation, or "walk over" their less aggressive classmates. The teacher must thoroughly understand the psychology and problems of adolescence, especially of leaders and superior pupils. There must be an excellent grasp of the nature of good democratic leadership as well of domination and other types of leadership. There must be, above all, an ability to inspire by example and personal enthusiasm, and a strong liberal outlook on social reform, with good grasp of problems of society and their importance.

The library.-- This course will require many books which are not at present often found in many high school libraries. Any list of these references should include those starred in the Classified Bibliography in the Appendix.

Summary

Reported leadership courses.-- The classes and courses which have been reported in educational journals and elsewhere have been listed, classified, and discussed. The nearest in conception to that herein framed is that of Dr. Edward John Liston in West Seattle High School, Washington State. His class is for selected, superior pupils, however. He calls his course "Personal Achievement." It is designed to improve school morale by encouraging these pupils to train themselves in leadership through projects and activities for the school. A seminar-type of class discusses problems of high school pupils,--those of study, finances, college preparation, school activities, leadership, family, personality, and education.

Some educational questions.-- Our relative ability to modify behavior and influence personality and character through formal education and by training techniques is discussed. We can do more by training, but we can promote personal changes for the better by instructions, assistance in self-appraisal, and discussion concerning the traits of an effective, well-balanced personality and about good moral principles. We can assist the pupil toward better self-organization by helping him to develop a sound philosophy of life.

Requirements and objectives.-- From consideration of what democratic society most urgently requires in social and societal leaders, we develop twelve objectives to be pursued in order to improve these needed abilities and traits and augment the

knowledges and skills in a course designed for potential leaders in high school.

Contents of the course: twelve units described briefly.-- We present twelve (problem-type) units for a year of work each based upon one of our twelve objectives. These are divided into quarters, with three units to a quarter. Each quarter's work has a central objective and major topic. First Quarter: Self-Appraisal and Self-Organization; Second Quarter: Leadership Qualities and Techniques; Third Quarter: Placement Guidance for Potential Leaders; Fourth Quarter: Social Problems and Solutions.

Methods of teaching recommended.-- We have suggested those teaching techniques which have proven most effective and practical in courses similar to the one proposed. These include seminar-type classes, student participation in planning and in leading discussions, training in presentations, (such as speeches, debates, forums, and reports), lectures by the teacher, assigned reading, use of parts of several texts for class discussion, and other special assignments to be individually reported upon. Projects are contemplated, with planning and reports on them in class. Measurements and ratings are used for information and motivation.

Other methods used by Dr. Liston have been described and are approved, such as class criticism of classmates' personality, a school achievements chart on the bulletin board for each pupil, et cetera.

Outside-class training.-- Such means of developing leadership ability by experience as encouraging pupils (1) to enter into extra-curricular activities in a responsible, purposive manner, and (2) to develop their own projects to meet school or community needs are discussed. Also coaching of individuals by the teacher or by other classmates, or by the leadership counselor on the spot or in subsequent individual or small-group conferences are brought up and recommended. A list of actual projects and activities engaged in by pupils of Dr. Liston's class are presented.

Organization of the course within the school.-- The course is placed in the senior year, may be taken by well-qualified juniors, is designed for potential leaders. If others wish to take it, other divisions of the class are organized. Selected potential leaders only are to be in the "A" division, however. We list the qualifications and traits desirable in the course teacher, especially information he must have in addition to the preparation required of the leadership counselor. He must be successful in operating a socialized or seminar-type of class, i.e. to be able to use democratic methods of teaching effectively; know the problems of superior adolescents, be a good educational leader; know the course materials and techniques; understand good leadership; and be able to inspire superior pupils.

CHAPTER X

VOCATIONAL AND PLACEMENT GUIDANCE

Introductory

Guidance and waste of ability.-- The earliest concern for the vocational guidance of school pupils was centered around the conviction that an unconscionable waste of ability was resulting from unwise vocational choices due to lack of competent guidance. [1/] Nowhere is waste of ability so inauspicious for the future of democracy as in the case of potential leaders. Many entirely lack guidance or have incompetent guidance. Others who are recognized are, nevertheless, untrained or are inadequately trained in leading. Still other are never discovered.

Bases of good guidance work.-- For effective guidance effort in schools four considerations are fundamental. (1) There must be a suitable variety and wise selection of measuring, rating, and appraising instruments; also, adequate materials for pupil's objective information and appraisal of the vacations and occupations they investigate. (2) Good organization both of such materials and of the efforts of pupils and guidance personnel is essential. (3) Guidance techniques must be intelligently applied to make guidance materials and interview effort useful alike to pupils and counselors and to make good organization effective.

1/ See Erville B. Woods, "The Social Waste of Unguided Ability" American Journal of Sociology XIX (Nov. 1913) pp. 358-369.

Discussion procedure.-- Herein we bring up the following topics in the order indicated: (1) Special problems in reference to vocational and higher-educational guidance of potential leaders; (2) Three vocational guidance units; (3) Choice and placement interviews; (4) Guidance department work in post-school placement of potential leaders; (5) Follow-up guidance.

Special Problems in Choice of Post-School Placement

The question of special needs.-- If the needs of potential leaders were the same as those of the rest of the student body, it would seem that they should not be given special vocational guidance. By citing some typical problems peculiar to this group, it may be shown that these pupils require special vocational guidance attention. Furthermore, as indicated above, prevention of their being misplaced or failing to make the best decisions on career plans is of paramount importance to the public, because of their potentialities for social leadership.

Some typical problems of potential leaders.-- Differently equipped or circumstanced potential leaders face various special problems. Let us sample the primary elements of six typical problems. (1) There is the pupil of unusually superior qualities and capacities whose scholastic and activity-achievement record are both excellent. He has great versatility and many interests. Due to his frequent and easy acceptance of responsibility and the high expectations of his fam-

ily, parental pressures are strong for one or more definite post-school plans. At the same time, he faces a plethora of scholarship offers and bids from colleges or employers. Result: confusion in many cases and, consequently, great need of objective information and wise guidance from a neutral and competent source. (2) We have another pupil who is an excellent scholar, though not as high in leadership or activity participation. He may have several scholarship offers. He can enter any one of a number of good colleges with ease. Problem: which one? (3) Now, let us look at a medium scholar. He has been unusually popular with everyone, has been "into everything." Perhaps this has resulted in lower grades. At any rate, no scholarship offers come his way. He may even have difficulty entering a good college due to only fair marks. Certainly he should, if possible, have the benefit of college and will undoubtedly profit from it. Problem: to get him into a college whose standards are suitably high to develop his undoubted latent capacities. It might well be that we should instead help him obtain a good position on the bottom rung of an occupational ladder leading to a vocational leadership situation than to send him to a second or third-rate college. (4) Ever present in our class is the successful athletic leader. He is by no means a poor scholar when he "puts his mind to it." So far, most of his brains and energy have been applied to the pursuit of a successful athletic career in high school. He is high in energy and industrious when suf-

ficiently motivated. He is practical and emotionally stable, and has ample personality and character qualifications for leadership. In classes, we have trained him mentally in spite of himself. He has athletic scholarship bids from all the third-rate, even some second-rate "athletic colleges." Problem: What vocation is he to enter? Consequently, which college that he can enter will best prepare him for this? Should he (1) try for a college which does not offer him a scholarship; (2) accept an athletic scholarship in the most "likely" college that offers it; or (3) forget further education and obtain a good job, with a "future?" (5) Another problem is that of the potential leader who, everything to the contrary notwithstanding, must, due to straitened family circumstances, give up any thought of further education and take the most remunerative job he can to keep the family financially afloat. Problem: how to get around this incubus in some manner and obtain for him a full college scholarship if possible. If this is not in some way feasible, the problem of guidance is how to help him obtain a job with a future consistent with his high potentialities, special capacities, and interests. (6) Space allows discussion of but one more example of the special vocational and educational placement problems typical among eleventh and twelfth-grade potential leaders. There is the potential leader who is definitely "non-scholastic" with grades through high school consistently fair to poor. He has excellent leadership qualifications in all other respects. His

ability to do school work is low, but his intelligence is high, and perfectly apparent. He has always obtained an abstract intelligence quotient of above 125. He simply has tried and consistently failed in all work at school where reading or writing is involved. He is discouraged with formal learning efforts in which he invariably fails. We realize that further attempts to obtain a formal education will harm him. The problem: to discover his most likely vocational "bent;" then to help him secure a placement which will prove most advantageous for the development of his powers, skills, leadership traits, and capacities to lead. This may mean a vocational or occupational training school or a position in some occupational "bottom rung" which has, however, a clear-cut, unimpeded avenue to the top.

Three Units of Vocational Guidance for Potential Leaders

Part of the course: "Service and Society".-- In chapter IX we postponed presentation of the following three units until this chapter, only mentioning their titles, since we desired to consider together all aspects of guidance looking to post-school plans. This Third Quarter of work in the course is preceded by one unit, already described, which contributes much to it. Unit I was devoted to self-appraisal, to measures and diagnostic inventories of character and personality, and to interpretations of results. This has definite value and is used in connection with vocational guidance at this point in the course. Another administration is made of the same meas-

ures, rating scales, and inventories to determine the extent of improvements meanwhile achieved as a result of attention directed at that time to revealed weaknesses.

Unit VII -- "What are my vocational interests and aptitudes?" This first of the units in the Third Quarter consists of the administration and interpretation of tests, ratings, and inventories of interests, aptitudes, and attitudes and any other measurements which may contribute to the pupil's objective understanding of his vocational leanings. The unit paper should be on such a topic as "The Three Occupations for Which I am Best Fitted."

Unit VIII -- "What are the requirements, problems, and work of leaders in various (selected) vocations?"-- Here the pupil makes further study (he may already have studied occupations in a previous vocational guidance course) of the qualifications, problems and work of the occupations and vocations for which he appears, from the results of measurements in the previous unit (also taking the results obtained in Unit I into consideration) to be best fitted. This is by all odds the longest of this quarter's units. Emphasis is placed upon what will be the qualifications and requirements at the top of the vocation, when and if that is reached. A very careful study is made, with liberal use of the library and visits with leaders in these vocations or talks by them to the class by its invitation. A good topic for the unit paper would be "The Qualifications, Work, and Some Typical Problems of a Labor Leader."

Unit IX -- "What vocation or occupation; what college shall I choose?"-- The bulk of the work in this unit consists of individual application of analytical and problem-solving techniques of thinking directed to the objective of reaching a satisfactory choice. Those pupils who are able to make a satisfactory matching of their personal qualities, aptitudes, interests and abilities, also taking into consideration all the factors of home requirements, family wishes, finances, their own scholastic achievements, and local or convenient opportunities,--such pupils may be set to work writing letters of application, making visits, making concrete plans for entry into college, a vocational school, or a job. The unit paper required is titled, "Why I have decided to Become a -----" or "My Plans for the Future," or "Why I am Planning to Enter ---- College."

Placement Interviews, Conferences, and Efforts

Interviews.-- The pupil should be motivated to seek interviews with the guidance director, his leadership counselor or the teacher of the course, to obtain advice or assistance in making his choice of a vocation, future plans or specific efforts to obtain placements in higher education or in a position. Conferences may be held by any of these and the pupil accompanied by his parents or guardian.

Conferences.-- It is desirable that the teacher or leadership counselor take the initiative in connection with potential leaders in promoting the holding of case conferences

wherever the difficulties of a pupil's situation or inability to decide and make definite plans appear to warrant it.

Placement efforts.-- It is our conviction that high schools should be sufficiently interested and concerned for the desirable placement of their potential leaders that the part of the personnel connected with the Societal Leadership Curriculum (the principal or vice-principal, school secretary, guidance director, guidance secretary, leadership counselors, and the teacher of "Service and Society") should make extra efforts in concrete ways to place the potential leaders in specific higher education or in jobs with a future.

Follow-up Work on Potential Leaders

Post-school assistance.-- Potential leaders who have gone out from school, should be encouraged to call upon it for advice and recommendations.

Follow-up studies.-- Extremely important to the future growth and improvement of the work for potential leaders in the entire societal leadership curriculum are any efforts in the form of follow-up studies to obtain light from graduates, concerning the relative effectiveness and shortcomings of the program. Also, we wish to know what graduates not selected as potential leaders have developed into leaders in adult life. Of them special studies should be made to determine what traits and abilities contributed to their achievement of leadership and what traits and abilities they possessed while in high school.

Summary

Kinds of vocational and placement guidance.-- Six kinds were listed including (1) measurements, (2) leadership vocation analyses, (3) vocational choice guidance, (4) educational choice and placement assistance, (5) vocational planning and job placement guidance, and (6) post-school advisory work.

Requirements for effective guidance work.-- Three necessities were distinguished: (1) adequate materials on leadership vocations and a well-selected group of measuring instruments; (2) good organization materials and guidance effort; (3) intelligent application of guidance techniques.

Problems peculiar to potential leaders.-- Six problems of vocational and educational choice and placement were sketched to prove that we should make special provisions for vocational guidance of potential leaders.

Personal appraisal measures and three vocational guidance units.-- The use of previous results obtained in the first unit of the course in "Service and Society" and re-administration of these same measures to indicate improvement of personality or character was described. The three problem units were (1) Unit VII, "What are my vocational interests and aptitudes?" (2) Unit VIII, "What are the requirements, problems and work of leaders in various (selected) vocations?" and (3) Unit IX, "What vocation or occupation; what college shall I choose?"

Placement.-- The work that should be done by the personnel of the high schools Societal Leadership Curriculum should do

in placing potential leaders was indicated in terms of (1) interviews between the potential leader (alone or accompanied by his parents) with members of the personnel, (2) case conferences between personnel members concerning individual pupils, and (3) placement efforts by members of the personnel of the Societal Leadership Curriculum.

Follow-up.-- It was indicated that graduated potential leaders would be studied and encouraged to obtain further advice or ask for further recommendations or school record transcripts.

CHAPTER XI

CONCLUSIONS AND RECOMMENDATIONS

Conclusions

1. There is in fact a great need for, and present lack of leaders competent to deal with groups effectively in face-to-face relationships, especially in reference to the serious social problems of large and small-group relationships now confronting the world, and particularly menacing the democratic countries.

2. If we wish to assure the continuance of human progress we must make every effort to obtain more competent social and societal leaders, social authorities who employ democratic techniques of social control. These, more than any other type of leaders, can help us to attack and overcome the societal problems. These problems at present most seriously endanger social progress. The whole march of the human race depends on overcoming the present lag in social progress resulting from (1) our failures with social problems and (2) our simultaneous meteoric success in achieving rapid cultural progress.

3. At present our most promising means (or opportunity) for improving the supply and quality of our social and societal leaders is that of a special secondary school effort in the form of a program designed to find, guide, educate, train, and desirably place adolescents who are potential leaders.

4. We should discover potential leaders in the secondary schools by the judicious application to all pupils of a well-selected group of measuring and appraising instruments and selection techniques, both subjective and objective. From a list of all pupils of a year-group ranked in degree of leadership potentiality, any desired percentage or number of pupils from the top down on the list may be described and processed as potential leaders.

5. Throughout their high school careers these potential leaders should have special attention from one or more teachers selected for suitable qualities and preparation, as leadership counselors. It is their duty to study thoroughly each potential leader assigned to them, to advise him, or to make such suggestions to him as seem warranted in the interests of the potential leader's well-rounded development in respect to the kinds of personality and character traits, and the abilities and skills requisite for good social leadership.

6. In the eleventh or twelfth grade, potential leaders should be urged, though not required, to take a course titled "Service and Society." It is designed to achieve, (by educational and training techniques employed in and out of class and by school or community projects or responsibilities which potential leader pupils are urged to undertake), further development of social leadership traits and abilities. It seeks to inculcate understandings of self, of leaders and leadership, of the vocations of leaders, and of the social problems which

today particularly challenge social leaders.

7. In the same course (as well as through the efforts of all of the secondary school personnel who are attached to the "Societal Leadership Curriculum"), the potential leaders should be given special assistance in making wise vocational choices and securing the best possible placement, all factors considered, in higher education, vocational training, positions compatible with their individual patterns of leadership potentialities and vocational choices. Follow-up assistance should be given potential leaders who have left school, and follow-up studies made by the personnel for the purposes of evaluating and improving this high school program for potential leaders.

Recommendations

1. Research in respect to the traits of adult and adolescent leaders have proceeded far enough now to make possible the construction of reliable, valid, measuring and appraising instruments for the evaluation of potential leadership capacities and traits at the adolescent level. Such instruments can and must be developed. The writer sees indications that they may at present be in the final processes of construction, standardization, and validation. 1/

2. Criticisms of a program and course of the type we have here proposed, or attacks upon it based upon the reaction that an effort is being made to introduce special "social class" education into the public schools, or that we are developing a future aristocracy and using the funds being supplied to

1/ See in bibliography series of articles by Hanawalt, et. al.

educate all the children of democracy to do it, can be easily met by several methods. We wish to recommend several.

We can answer that special attention is already being bestowed on other groups of exceptional children who need it. We can point out that the special needs of, and problems peculiar to potential leaders and also the requirements of democracy for better social leaders in the future both require that special educational attention be directed to their more adequate development.

We can also institute other divisions of the course, "Service and Society" which may be entered by any pupil of the school, preferably making these other divisions scholastic ability groups ("B", "C", "D", etc.) and adapting course materials, approaches, and emphases to the several average intellectual capacities and future needs of the pupils of each class (or "ability groups").

3. Follow-up studies should be made of the graduates of several selected high schools. Such schools should possess cumulative records for all pupils for the past twenty-five years. Their records should contain results of personal measurements and estimates as well as fully adequate other data for all pupils. Investigators should proceed to locate all graduates and pupils who left these schools over a period of five years, (say 1920 to 1925).

They should select for special study the records of all pupils who have, as adults, become leaders or people having

important social influence. Two lists should be compiled from examination of their school records. The first is a list of the pupils who were chosen as leaders by their classmates or who were appointed by teachers or school administrators or outside of school to responsible positions, or tasks of a responsible social character. These are the "recognized leaders." The rest go on the other list. These are the unrecognized potential leaders.

These latter are then especially studied. The object of this entire follow-up study would be to determine what are the typical abilities and trait characteristics possessed by adolescents (who in adult life become social leaders) whose potentialities for leadership of this kind went unrecognized or were in an undeveloped state while they were pupils in secondary school.

4. Follow-up studies of the graduates of courses of this kind or of programs of special education for this purpose should be made to evaluate their effectiveness in developing leadership by comparing the leadership achievements of this trained group with a parallel matched group of untrained pupils. 1/

1/ Several studies of this kind have been made of the results of classes for gifted children and the results of other techniques for their special education. The only outstanding one is by Merle Richard Sumption, 300 Gifted Children. World Book Co., Yonkers-on-Hudson, New York, 1941.

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APPENDIX A

A BIBLIOGRAPHICAL ESSAY

Introductory

What is attempted.-- Here we can attempt little more than to mention what have been the most vital contributors and contributions made by a hundred writers to our thinking or information in this study. Title and publication dates for all of these may be found in the alphabetized list that follows, full data in the bibliography.

Basis of selection.-- As stated in Chapter II, this is a collection of materials which directly apply to one or more vital problems or topics of this study and have served to clarify or solve a problem, or have cited opinions especially valuable because from well-qualified authorities.

Value of this list.-- The writer believes that any student of this general problem or related problems must eventually face most of these questions and may be unaware that effective answers to several pivotal questions, or solutions to vital problems have been published. Here we mention only those materials which proved most essential herein.

Leadership and Progress

Need, lack, and importance of good social leaders.-- Better than anyone else, Cutten briefly describes the need today of social leaders in democracy, stating with considerable

insight the reasons why democracy fails to have enough of such leaders. He makes clear that we are accustomed to believe so implicitly in the equality principle that either we ignore our leaders or attempt to drive from the back seat. Butler and J. T. Adams have pointed out that there is a world-wide lack and quest for good social leaders. Anderson makes another important contribution in describing our great need for rural leadership.

Leadership and democracy.-- T. V. Smith and Chapin perfectly described the types of leaders democracy must have. Berle reinforces them with an article on what democracy must do about the situation to strengthen itself. Hart (especially pages 402-424) should be read on what future American education must do to support a democratic social order.

Progress.-- Kimball ably clarified the views of the two principal philosophers who defined the nature of progress and evolution,-- Spencer and Ward. Hertzler is our best source on the nature of social progress, classifying, comparing, and contrasting the major opinions of social philosophers, and developing excellent definitions himself. Briffault's further development of the views of Ward and Spencer first led the writer to perceive that men's high intelligence can be used effectively to do socially stupid things as well as to do wise ones. Hence, man's intelligence does not necessarily result in social progress. It must be a humane, wise, social intelligence.

Progress through leaders and leadership.-- The crucial question that arises here concerns the comparative importance of leaders or of social forces in influencing or causing events and social progress or decay. Dewey and Ogburn best set forth the "social forces" school of thought. Leaders' importance to history and to progress, originally a famous theme of Carlyle, recently has been strongly revived, effectively analyzed, and rationalized by Hook.

Study of Leadership

Approach to leadership.-- Bowman gives the researcher admirable advice, especially warning him away from using superlatives in designating leadership, a practice that usually tempts students of leadership to escape from bothersome but essential scientific precision in referring to concepts attached to leadership. Snedden points out that many of us hold idealistic, romantic, long obsolete concepts of leadership. Gauss scoffs at those who forget that before a person may hope to be a leader he must first "try to be a good chemist." Successful achievement must precede leading!

Origins of leaders and leadership.-- Mumford's anthropological analysis of leader origins is still the indispensable and best introduction to the subject. Campbell apparently now leads the school (first scientifically founded by Galton) of those who hold that leadership is innate (leaders "born not made"). H. S. Person is the major scientific authority for the opinion that environment is the primary influence. In his

train come Page, Jennings, and Pitkin.

Page proved with an Iowa kindergarten experiment that leadership within a definite group is awarded to the child with the superior "know-how", when she trained her most submissive children to play certain games in advance of the rest of the class. Confidence gained when they in turn taught these games to their classmates developed prestige and self-confidence which changed her most submissive pupils to the leaders of their group. Jennings has proven that creation of leaders also originates from superior ability to be personally preferred as a friend by many in a specific group: personal choice originates leadership. Pitkin (1940) asserts that in his judgment, it is the situation that makes the leaders, not the leaders the situation.

Types of leaders.-- The writer considers that Cowley (1928) developed the most useful of all basic classifications of leaders, by his well-defined "leaders, dominators, headmen," categories. Bogardus previously worked out an interesting group of categories giving us examples of each in actual leaders. His is the biographical approach. Tead gives us the most inspiring, hopeful, and practical description of the democratic type of leaders, with all their qualifications and techniques. Some time ago, Chapin prophesied the greatest need and lack we have today,-- for socialized leaders, defining and describing them. Swetman backed him up with his conception of "dynamic social leadership." To Pigors we are

indebted for descriptions of domination and leadership which show great insight. Odum forecast the necessity of a new type of leader which we would call the "societal" type.

Effectiveness of democratic leadership.-- Lewin, in his remarkable Iowa studies, proved beyond question that the "democratic type" of teacher gets better results by far than the dominative or the "laissez-faire" types. Goodwin Watson brings out the significance of Lewin's work, in reference to children's emotional conditioning during school training. Thus, educational experimentation scientifically confirms and establishes that in teaching, at least, the democratic type of leadership is most effective and most desirable from the standpoint of mental hygiene.

Education and Leadership Training

Ability to teach leadership and influence personality.-- Basic studies were made by Reagan and Pearl on the effect of practices on individual differences and by Commins on the effect of "education on original differences." Page showed how confidence from "know-how" could result in leadership. Eichler and Merrill proved by careful experiments in two high schools in Pennsylvania that leadership can be taught by direct instruction in leadership technique. A new optimism followed this, which researchers like Bavelas strengthened. Recent experiments have been made by the sociometrists Lippett and Zander with the "psycho-drama", a technique which may prove to be an excellent means of retraining and reorganizing

personal behavior. Partridge's recent text on adolescent social psychology and his previous study of adolescent leadership are both invaluable in getting at the mechanisms of boys' selections of their leaders and the traits of adolescent boy leaders.

Opposing these conclusions of social scientists is President Conant [1] of Harvard who not long ago took faculties aback with his statement: "I do not believe that the peculiar ability which makes a man a powerful leader of men can be influenced by the curricula of schools and colleges. But, /avers Conant/ his general outlook and point of view can be much affected." In 1941 Zeleny capably summarized experiments in leadership training.

Success of democratic education in leadership production.--If the education offered at the Rome (New York) Free Academy from 1914 to 1919 is any criterion to judge the average contribution of American secondary education to development of leaders, the study of Clem and Dodge indicates it to have been very low. A 1937 master's thesis by Hays at Louisiana University on leaders of extra-curricular activities in high school finds that lack of leadership training and failure to train pupils in selection of leaders has extremely adverse effects on the quality and ability of elected high school leaders. Indeed, in respect to leadership training, as Tead

1/ James B. Conant, "Function of the Secondary School in Educating for Social and Cultural Leadership", School and Society 41: 1-7 (Jan. 5, 1935).

declared (1939); "The inertia of school systems today is a far more serious threat to democracy than any radical ideas which a few teachers may cherish." 1/

Should we educate for leadership?.-- The first determined opponent of education for gifted children and leaders was Bagley, who called such effort "educational determinism." Dean Gauss and Pitkin, we have seen, disapprove of the whole idea. Frank P. Graves for years (from 1925 on) repeatedly urged development of "an aristocracy of service" in New York, apparently confining this to the colleges. Grabo, in 1918 worked out for the University of Chicago a proposed two-year college course designed for superior students. As described by him it was concentrated on presenting the socio-economic history of the growth of social morality. His course outline makes stimulating reading indeed. Dwight L. Sanderson, even earlier, (1915) raised the question whether colleges should definitely train leaders. Dean Donham, of the Harvard Business School is clearly not of the same "school" as his president in respect to policies of training and education for leadership.

As for the high schools, several voices have been crying lustily for leadership education there. The strongest cry in favor (without offering a program, however) is the stirring 1935 article by Superintendent Tower. But, back in 1922, H. O. Bennett of Oregon was also emphatic. "The failure of a large number of high school graduates to accept leadership

1/ Ordway Tead, "Administration and Freedom." Survey Graphic, XXVIII 28: (Oct. 1939) pp. 619-20.

because of lack of training for such work has caused," he says, "a large number of people to condemn the high schools and claim that the results obtained from them do not justify the large expense necessary to their maintenance." 1/ Hay's recent measurements confirm this opinion.

Dixon, a social studies supervisor, thinks that we must come out definitely for training in civic leadership. He says this is being done, but in an unplanned way. Eginton also emphatically wanted to see leadership education. Peat and Greer ask what intelligence group should be given most attention if teachers are to devote more time to "exceptional " children. Tildesley saw an increasing waste of ability and effort in the secondary school. A recent examination by Canning of two basic purposes of education,--to educate the pupil for himself or for society, points out that democracy embodies reconciliation of both viewpoints. He argues that we should train leaders because "....the rights of the individual should be upheld providing he does not become a menace to other individuals...." [and because] "the social welfare of all is the responsibility of the state." 2/

Some ideas on how we should train for leadership.-- Myers points out that most people assume that leaders should come from the ranks of the most intelligent, and apparently take it for granted that when we get them trained they will certainly

1/ H. O. Bennett, "Developing Leadership in the High School." Education XLIV (October 1922) pp. 107-117.
2/ Leslie B. Canning, "Training for Leadership" California Journal of Elementary Education VIII (Nov. 1939) pp. 100-105.

be chosen. He asks how we can train the brightest to become likeable enough to be chosen and the less intelligent to prefer them. Clarence Dykstra maintains that professional and technical education are not enough to train students for future leadership. Will Durant wants a national civil academy set up to train civil servants, as the national military academies train future officers. McCall steadily pushes for personality education in the grades to eliminate "human waste."

Measurement and Leadership Traits

Leadership traits.-- Flemming's factor analysis of the personality of girl high school leaders found that "fairness" has the highest correlation, the method being by pupil and teacher ratings. This is a common discovery in studies of this kind. Coffin concludes from a job-analysis of leaders' functions in positions that the traits of good leaders fall under three heads,-- those that contribute to the functions of planning, organizing, and persuading. Lehman and Witty think leaders develop by and from ability, drive, and opportunity. Mann says we evaluate character and choose leaders on the basis of achievements or actions, more than anything else. Reals, by pairing, held constant in 27 high school leaders and 27 followers, the factors of curriculum, sex, age, scholarship, and intelligence. Leaders had better attendance, health, appearance, more broadening experience, participated in more activities, led oftener, had better educated parents, who were more cooperative. Leaders had more interests, their

activities were more diversified and unusual, had less outside persons living in their homes, in better neighborhoods, better home atmosphere, were oftener "only" children, were more critical of parents, companionable with them, had more prominent relatives.

Measurement.-- Here, Link's "P.Q." test of social intelligence and Hanawalt's series of articles on leadership as measured by the Bernreuter Scale and Allport's measure of ascendance exercised the greatest influence on the writer. Baldwin's comments on the nature of superiority is strictly a matter of intelligence quotient, and Martin's study of practices of 30 Midwest cities in selecting gifted children have been influential. What is most needed is a good measure of relative vitality (see Singer), school attendance record, or even activities lests not being good enough evidence. It should be a strictly scientific or medical measure. The writer regards vitality as partly innate, but strongly influenced by drive, probably resulting from strong motives that produce well-defined urges finding good opportunity for expression.

Counseling References

Though no particular references on leadership counseling especially influenced the writer, many materials gave broad impressions of what are the problems peculiar to potential leaders. Other materials enlightened on how the counselor may assist in developing successful adolescent leadership

personality in high schools.

The Leadership Course

Promotors of leadership guidance and education programs.-- Following Graves, Rainey took up the cudgels for leadership training of college youth. Monroe has spoken sharply, raising the question whether colleges were giving a live, dynamic training for tomorrow's leaders or were conservatively re-hashing dead material.

Jones spoke first for leadership guidance in the high school and was followed by Tower, by Proctor's recent scholarly plea, and by Kratz, another student of leadership guidance who has her facts well in hand.

Leadership training courses.-- The results of these pleas appear in a few widely scattered experiments and "laboratory" courses for leadership training in junior and senior high schools. Most of them show strong influence of old standards of selection by scholastic intelligence measurements. Plenty of evidence exists, however, that the importance of additional qualifications in selecting "superior pupils" and "potential leaders" is finding recognition. Junior high school classes are reported by Evans, Stiles, and Caldwell. Senior high school courses are reported by Davis, Hummer, White, Alpern, Champlin, Parham, and Liston. Hand reports a student leader-ship seminar; other college leadership training courses also exist. Willard reports an institute for leadership training being carried on at Washington each spring for 200 selected

high school leaders.

The most adequate study of the effectiveness of special training of this kind is given by Sumption's follow-up of 300 specially trained gifted children, products of Cleveland's Major Work Classes.

Leadership Course Textbooks.-- Unquestionably the most influential writers in this field are M. E. Bennett and H. C. Hand, collaborators. Uhl and Powers are important newcomers to the field. The book by Baxter and Cassidy "carries the torch" in a stimulating style and will strongly influence those charged with developing young group leaders who use it.

Vocational Guidance

No particular book has influenced the writer in connection with vocational guidance for potential leaders. None apparently exists.

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APPENDIX B -- WRITERS CLASSIFIED BY TOPICS*

I SOCIAL PROGRESS AND LEADERSHIP

1. Progress and Social Progress

Bury, J.B.-1932
Hertzler, Joyce O.-1928
Kimball, Elsa Peverly -1932
Olsen, Edward G.- 1939
Spencer, Herbert -1884 and 1893
Ward, Lester F.-1884-5

2. Great Men or Social Forces

Becker, Carl Lotus -1935
Carlyle, Thomas -1910 (first ed. in 1840)
Dewe, Juhl Aduhlbert -1910
Hook, Sydney -1943
Ogburn, William Fielding -1922 and 1926

3. Leadership and Progress of Democracy

Adams, James T. -1932
Berle, A.A. Jr., -1939
Butler, Nicholas Murray -1937
Coffman, L.D. -1932
Cutten, George B -1928
North, Cecil Clare -1932
Salter, Sir Arthur- 1939

II SOCIAL INTELLIGENCE AND SOCIAL PROBLEMS

1. Intelligence and Social Stupidity

Briffault, R.S. -1936
Jastrow, J.-1938
Noble, Edmund -1928
Stoddard, George D.-1943
Tildesley, John L.-1938 (July)

2. Social Telesis

Briffault, R.S. -1930
Noble, Edmund, -1927

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3. Social Intelligence and Social Problems

Barnes, Harry Elmer -1926
Odum, H.F.
Odum, Howard W. -1939
Thorndike, Edward Lee,-1936

4. Isolating Social Intelligences

Chapin, F. Stuart -1939
Hart, Joseph Kinmont -1924

III ORIGINS OF LEADERSHIP

1. Leadership inborn

Campbell, C.G. -1930
Galton, Sir Francis -1875 and 1892
Jennings, H.S. -1930
Pearl, Raymond -1927
Woods, Frederick Adams, 1906

2. The Anthropological Viewpoint

Mumford, Eben -1909

3. Leadreship from Frustration and Resentment

Frank, L.K. -1939

4. Leadership as Response to Social Environment

James, William -1880
Judd, C.H. -1929
Page, Marjorie L. -1936
Person, H.S. -1928
Pitkin, Walter B -1940

5. Born or Made?

Burks, Barbara Stoddard -1928
Jennings, H.S. -1924
LaVoy, Kenneth R. 1928

IV LEADERSHIP -- SCIENTIFIC STUDY AND APPROACH

1. Approach

Bowman, Leroy E. 1927
Cowley, William H. 1928
Lewin, Kurt -1944
Partridge, Ernest DeAlton -1943
Snedden, David S. -1930

2. Structure

Chapin, Stuart, 1924
Jennings, H.H. 1943 and1937
Thrasher, Frederick 1927
Sward, K.T. 1931, 1933

3. Effects of Different Kinds of Leadership in the Led

Lewin, Kurt, 1928, 1939
Lippitt, Ronald 1939 and 1940
Mowrer, O.H. 1939
Redl, Fritz 1942
Watson, Goodwin B. 1940

4. Leadership and Achievement

Mann, Charles Riborg 1928
Pitkin, Walter B. 1930
Sward, K.T. 1933

V Types of LEADERS AND LEADERSHIP

1. Types

Cowley, W.H. 1928, 1931
Bogardus, Emory S. 1934
Lee, Ralph E. 1939
Spauling, Charles F. 1938

2. Economic Leaders

Carver, T.Nixon 1952
Emery, James A. 1939
Schell, Erwin 1938

3. Leadership or ---?

Freund, E.J. 1936
Fyfe, H.H. 1945
Ganders, H.S. 1937
Pigors, Paul 1935

4. Social Leaders of Type Needed

Bates, Sanford 1939
Chapin, F. Stuart 1924
Leeuw, J.J. van der 1933
Knebel, A.G. 1937
Smith, Thomas Vernor 1925
Smyth, Nathan Ayer 1940
Swetman, Ralph W. 1929
Tead, Ordway, 1935, 1939

VI LEADERSHIP EDUCATION HERE AND ELSEWHERE (HISTORY)

1. Elsewhere

International Bureau of Education Bulletin, 1944
Jones, Arthur J. 1938
Kandel, I.L. 1939
King, B.L. 1939
Kotschnig, W.M. 1939
Lybyer, Albert Bouse, 1913
Norwood, Cyril, 1929

2. Here (History of Leadership Education in America)

Jones, A.J. 1938

VII CAN WE TEACH LEADERSHIP?

1. The Question

Ewing, R.H. 1944
Gray, W.R. 1928

2. No

Conant, J.B. 1934

3. Effects of Practice on Individual Differences

Commins, W.D. 1927
Pearl, R.E. 1934
Reagan, George 1930

4. Sociometric Experiments

Bavelas, A. 1942
Lippitt, R. 1943
Murray, A.J. 1941
Zander, Alvin and Lippitt, R. 1944

5. Educational Experiments and Reports

Eichler, George A. 1934, 1937 (Dec. and Jan.)
" " and Merrill R.A. 1933
French, J.R.P. jr. 1944
Merrill, Rober Ray 1931
Page, Marjorie L. 1936
Halsey, G.D. 1939
Smith, H.L. 1935

6. A Summary of Experiments

Zeleny, L.D. 1941

VII PERSISTENCE of LEADERSHIP

Clem, O. M. and Dodge, S.S. 1933
Crowley, J.J. 1941
Courtney, May E. 1938
Levi, Isabelle J. 1929
Shannon, J.R. 1929

VIII LEADERSHIP EDUCATION AND DEMOCRATIC EDUCATIONAL POLICY

1. Education and Social Progress

Judd, C.H. 1934
Todd, A.J. 1935

2. Purposes of American Education

Marshall, 1942
Morrison, J.C. 1939
Russell, B. 1926

3. Education for Democracy

Mahoney, J.J. 1945
Orata, P.T. 1936
Rehwinkle, A.M. 1939
Reynolds, J.H 1939
Studebaker, J.W. 1939 (Sept)

4. Utilization of Social Science Knowledge

Lynde, R.S. 1938
Peirce, A., 1939

5. Freedom and Educational Administration

Tead, O., 1938 and 1939 and 1939,(Oct)

6. Leadership and National Morale

Bogardus, E.S. 1941, 1942

IX SHOULD WE EDUCATE FOR LEADERSHIP?

1. Need for Better Leaders and for Leadership Education

Anderson, J.T. 1932
Graves, F.P. 1937
Rainey, H.P. 1935

2. Leadership Education Impractical or Inconsistent with Democratic Educational Policy

Bagley, W.C. 1928
Gauss, C. 1928
Pitkin, W. 1930
Conant, J.B. 1935

3. Why We Should(or Should not) Educate for Leadership in the Public Schools

Canning, L.B. 1939
Hankins, F.H. 1923
Peat, D. and Greer, C.W 1942
Smiley, C.N 1938
Sowers, R.V. 1940
Steinburg, S. 1942

4. Are Colleges Educating for Leadership?

Brandt, J.A. 1945
Carman, H.J. 1944
Doherty, R.E. 1935
Dykstra, C.A. 1940
Munroe, J. 1940

5. The Colleges Can and Should Educate for Leadership, with Propoasals

Durant, W. 1933
Donham, W.B. 1936
Grabo, C.H. 1918
Sanderson, E.D. 1915
Viau, J.M. 1939

6. Failure of the High Schools to Develop Good Leaders

Hays, L.S. 1937
Messenger, J.F. 1928
Morgan, B.Q. 1945
Ormsby, W.D. 1940
Tildesly, J.L.

7. Favoring High School Leadership Education

Bennett, H.O. 1922
Dixon, W.R. 1939
Eginton, D.P. 1935
Proctor, W.M. 1934
Tower, D.M. 1935

X Ability GROUPING

Carroll, H.A.
Purdom, T.L.

XI. LEADERSHIP TRAITS AND THE TRAITS OF LEADERS

1. Trait analysis and Personality

Allport, G.W 1937
Bender, I.E. 1928
Lehman, Hc. and Witty, P.A. 1928 amd 1927
Heath, H.F. 1942
Link, H. L937 (Book)
Stott, L. 1938
Symonds, P.M. April 1930
Thorpe, L.P. 1939

2. Leadership Types and Traits

Coffin, T.E. 1944
Cowley, W.H. 1931
Myerson, A.H. 1921
Nutting, L.R. 1923
Sifert, E. 1929
Singer, H.D. 1939
Zeleny, L.D. 1939

3. Giftedness and Leadership

Eckert, R.E. 1934
Finch, F.H. 1932
Speight, H.E.B. 1938
Terman, L.M. 1925, 1936
Cox, C. 1926

4. Leadership and Intelligence

Bennett, H.O. and Jones, B.R. 1923
Simpson, W.A. 1939
Schoot, E.L. 1926
Yates, D.M.A. 1922

5. Social Psychology of Adolescent Leadership

Partridge, E.D. 1932, 1934, 1938, 1933
Pigors, P. 1934, 1933
Straub, H.K. 1940
Stray, .F. 1934

6. Traits of High School Leaders

Amick, W.R. 1935
Bellingrath, G.C. 1930
Bozeman, D.C. 1936
Brouwer, J.W. 1940
Brown, M.A. 1933.

Brown, M.A., 1933
Caldwell, O.W. and Wellman, B., 1926
Cass, F.H., Currie, B.P., 1938
Eckert, T.L., 1929
Durval, P., 1933
Duncan, M.B., 1935
Flemming, E.G., 1935
Higbee, E.C., L.C., 1931
Holden, B.S., 1941
Kousta, F., 1934
Maher, R., 1931
Mooney, J., 1937
Reals, W.H., 1933
Remmlein, M.R., 1938
Reynolds, F.J., 1944
Scherkenpack, L.M., 1939
Wetzel, W.A., 1932
Young, K., 1937

3. Traits of College Leaders

Hunter, E.C., and Jordan, A.M., 1939
Prosh, F.J., 1928
Robinson, E., 1935

XII MEASUREMENT TO DISCOVER POTENTIAL LEADERS

1. In General

Bromley, H.L., 1930
Hunt, T., 1936
Westburgh, E.A., 1931

2. Personality and Appraisal of It

Abel, T.M., 1940
Allport, G.W., 1928. 1939
Bernreuter, R.G., 1933, 1935
Chapin, F.S., 1942
Craig, D.R., 1927
Hart, H., 1942
Hanawalt, and Richardson, 1944, 1945
Link, H.C., 1936, 1938, 1944
Moss, Hunt, and Omwake, 1930
Moore and Gilliland, 1928
Morgan and Hull, 1926
Morris, E.H., 1930
Page, D.P., 1936
Sheahy, L.M., 1938
Richardson and Hanawalt, 1942, 1941
Roslow, S., 1940
Vernon and Allport, 1931

3. Self-Measurement and Self-Study

Allen, C.M., 1950
Allen, F.D., 1954
Laird, D.A., 1925
Yoakum, C.S. and Manson, G.H., 1928
Tryon, C.M., 1939

4. Selection of Superior Children

Baldwin, B.T.,
Martin, L.M., 1938
Zeleny, L.D., 1940

5. Measurement for Prediction

Bingham, W.V. D., 1937
Fryer, D., 1937
Hepner, H.R., 1938
Reys, N., 1940

XIII COUNSELING TECHNIQUE AND BACKGROUND

1. General Counselor's References

Burgess, E.W., 1928
Groves, E.R., 1938
Marston, M.M., 1928
Williams, E.M., 1928

2. Counseling Techniques

Bingham, W. Van D., and Moore, B.V., 1934
Roemer, J., and Hoover, C., 1938
Strang, R., 1937
Williamson, E.G., and Hahn, M.E., 1940

3. Study of Adolescent Problems and Psychology

Boorman, W.R., 1929, 1931.
Leonard, J.P., 1938
Jones, H.E., and others, 1943

4. Personality Guidance

Bruce, M.A., 1940
Strang, Ruth, 1938

5. Character and Personality Development

Drake, R.M., 1941
McKown, H.C., 1935

Messick, J.D., 1956
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